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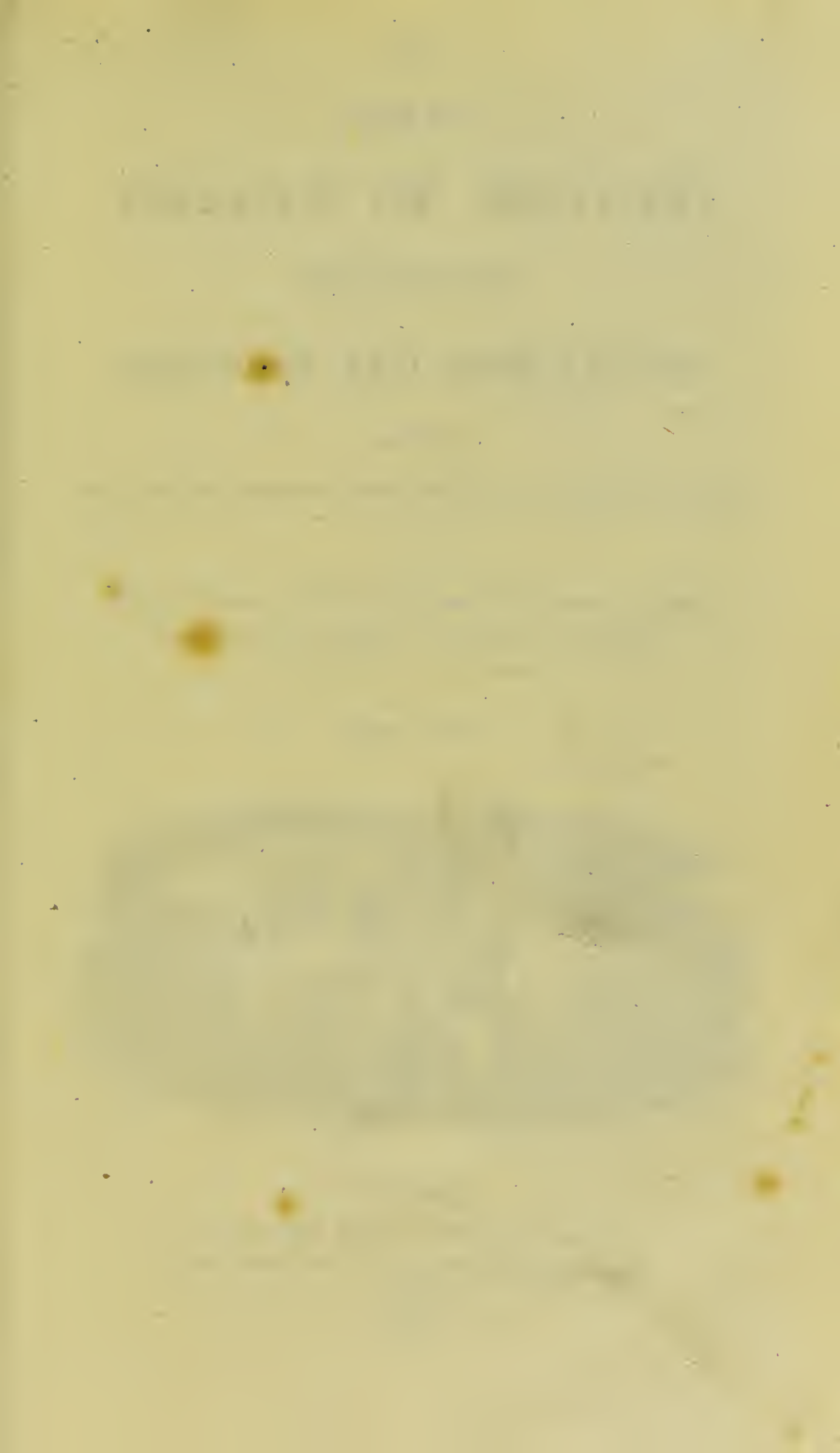
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THE  
FAMILY  
ORACLE OF HEALTH,  
ECONOMY,  
*MEDICINE, AND GOOD LIVING ;*

ADAPTED TO

ALL RANKS OF SOCIETY, FROM THE PALACE TO THE COTTAGE.

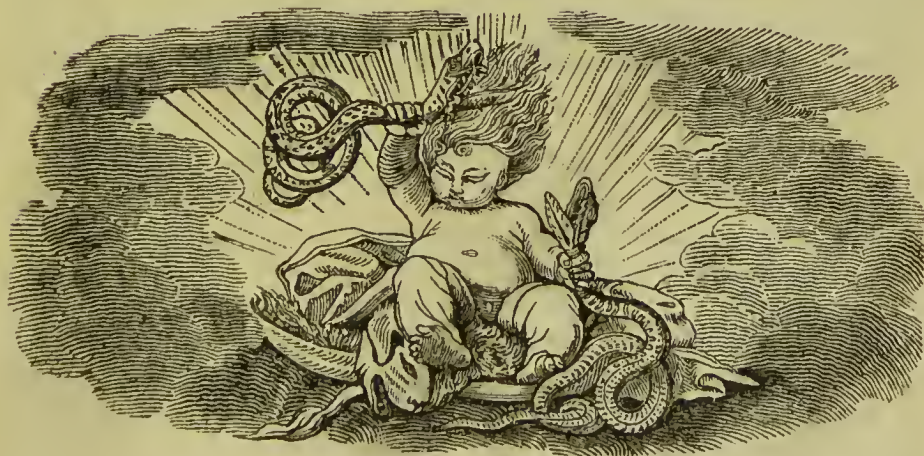
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By A. F. CRELL, M.D. F.R.S. and W. M. WALLACE, Esq.

Assisted by a Committee of Scientific Gentlemen.

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## THE FAMILY

# ORACLE OF HEALTH.

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WE have now brought our originally little work to the conclusion of three goodly volumes, and our undiminished extensive sale is the best proof we can possibly have that our labours have given satisfaction. Gratified at the patronage our work has met with, our endeavours have been in a corresponding degree directed to one object—that of making it worthy the distinction it has received; and aware that our compact with the public can only be broken by a dereliction of our duty, we need hardly say, that our utmost endeavours will still be exerted to continue our engagements to the numerous readers of the ORACLE. With this view, we shall hereafter not only give such useful information as heretofore, but shall make free extracts from the writings of celebrated men, whose opinions, from their talent or practice, may be considered of importance in the estimation of the public.

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### ON THE CONVULSIONS OF CHILDREN.

FROM whatever cause, a great predisposition to convulsive affections exist in children, and the following symptoms are usually characteristic of that state of increased irritability from which their occurrence is to be anticipated. Although it cannot be said with truth the child is ill, he is evidently threatened with disease. The parent will observe, that during the day he starts with apprehension at the most trifling noise, and his sleep is disturbed with sudden cries. Not unfrequently he sleeps through the day, and remains restless, and sometimes entirely sleepless during the night. Whatever might have been the natural placidity of his temper, he now becomes peevish and irritable:—quarrels with his companions, and derives either no pleasure at all, or but a momentary amusement from his most favourite playthings, which will be suddenly thrown away after



having slightly occupied his attention. The eyes are frequently fixed, without being apparently directed to any particular object; or they are thrown upwards, and steadfastly fixed upon the ceiling. The pupil of the eye is sometimes for a moment contracted, and then suddenly dilated; if a candle is held close to the eye of a child when convulsions are anticipated, the following peculiarities may be remarked:—In some instances, where the pupil has been contracted at the moment the light is applied, it will suddenly dilate, and as suddenly again contract, the light being held steadily close to the eye. The effect of light upon both pupils is not always similar. One may remain fully dilated, while the other contracts, or one pupil may remain stationary, the other being alternately contracted and dilated. Should the same effect not be produced upon both pupils upon holding a light to the eyes, there is reason to fear some serious affection of the head. It is particularly necessary when convulsions are anticipated, that an examination of the limbs during sleep should take place: if the limbs deviate from the ordinary degree of flexure to the more straight position, there is generally some irregularity in the state of tone, and of course of the vital influx. Upon viewing the position of a child during sleep, whom, from the occurrence of symptoms above-mentioned, we consider disposed to convulsions, we shall frequently find the limbs almost rigidly extended, the great toes and thumbs being turned inwards. Stretching of the limbs, it is true, is both in adults and in children a natural action, which is exerted to restore muscular equilibrium. In connexion with several of the other premonitory symptoms, however, it must be considered as a strong indication of a tendency to convulsive movements. The colour of the countenance varies frequently in children strongly predisposed to convulsive paroxysms: at one moment it is pale, at another highly flushed. No corresponding variation of the temperature of the surface of the body is to be detected. For a short time the countenance of the child is expressive of great animation—the eyes are vivid and glassy in appearance; suddenly, and without cause, he appears languid and inclined to sleep. The breathing is irregular; the child frequently draws long and deep inspirations with apparent difficulty, and these are alternated with a short and catchy breathing. This disordered respiration is peculiarly indicative of approaching convulsions. It is usually accompanied by a fulness of the upper lip, and a contracted appearance of the nose, which alter the natural appearance of the countenance. The hands are frequently directed towards the nostrils, apparently without any voluntary effort. If we observe the fingers of a child highly disposed to convulsive diseases, we shall see them either in frequent and sudden motion, or firmly



pressed towards the palm of the hand. The thumb is more frequently contracted upon the palm, the fingers at the same time being extended, and separated from each other.

*The Treatment.*

When, therefore, these symptoms are observed, it will be necessary to apply opiate frictions upon the chest and belly, which will be found of the utmost service. Dr. Brown, of New Orleans, affirms, that a gradually increased pressure on the stomach with the hands, very much relieves the convulsive struggles. A tight bandage round the body is also beneficial in relieving them. Dr. Currie mentions the cold bath in the highest terms, and says, that from eight years experience, he is justified in recommending it, as most efficacious in removing the convulsions of children from whatever cause they may arise. We certainly think that it is a most probable remedy, and the popular method of restoring persons who are subject to fits, by throwing cold water in their face, is confirmatory of the probability of its success.

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ON THE EVIL EFFECTS OF BURNING GAS IN CLOSE APARTMENTS, BY SIR HUMPHRY DAVY.

Carburetted hydrogen gas is a deadly poison, and cannot fail to prove very baneful when used in close apartments. The pains in the head—the nausea and distressing languor which persons frequenting the theatres feel, in consequence of inhaling the unburnt gas, is a sufficient proof, if any were wanting, of its poisonous effects; but some experiments which were made by Sir Humphry Davy, places the fact in a more prominent point of view. He introduced into a silk bag four quarts of this gas, nearly pure, which had been carefully produced from the decomposition of water by charcoal, an hour before the experiment, and which had a very strong and disagreeable smell. “After a forced exhaustion of my lungs,” says he, “the nose being accurately closed, I made three inspirations and expirations of the gas. The first inspiration produced a sort of numbness and loss of feeling in the chest and about the pectoral muscles. After the second inspiration, I lost all power of perceiving external things, and had no distinct sensation, except a terrible oppression on the chest. During the third expiration this feeling disappeared, I seemed sinking into annihilation, and had just power enough to drop the mouth-piece from my unclosed lips. A short interval must have elapsed, during which I respired common air, before the objects about me were distinguishable. On recollecting myself, I faintly articulated, ‘*I do not think I shall die.*’

Putting my finger on the wrist I found my pulse thread-like, and beating with excessive quickness. In less than a minute I was able to walk; and the painful oppression on the chest directed me to the open air. After making a few steps, which carried me to the garden, my head became giddy, my knees trembled, and I had just sufficient voluntary power to throw myself on the grass. Here the painful feeling of the chest increased with such violence as to threaten suffocation. At this moment I asked for some nitrous oxide. Mr. Dwyer brought me a mixture of oxygen and nitrous oxide, which I breathed for a minute, and *believed* myself relieved. In five minutes, the painful feelings began gradually to diminish. In an hour they had nearly disappeared, and I felt only excessive weakness and a slight swimming of the head. My voice was very feeble and indistinct: this was at two o'clock in the afternoon. I afterwards walked slowly for about half an hour; and on my return was so much stronger and better, as to believe that the effects of the gas had disappeared, though my pulse was 120, and very feeble. I continued without pain for nearly three quarters of an hour, when the giddiness returned with such violence as to oblige me to lie on the bed; it was accompanied with nausea, loss of memory, and deficient sensation. In about an hour and a half the giddiness went off, and was succeeded by an excruciating pain in the forehead, and between the eyes, with transient pains in the chest and extremities. Towards night these affections gradually diminished; at ten, no disagreeable feeling except weakness remained. I slept sound; and awoke in the morning very feeble and very hungry. I have," adds Sir H. Davy, "been minute in the account of this experiment; because it proves, that carburetted hydrogen acts as a *sedative*, *i. e.* that it produces diminution of vital action and debility without previously exciting it. There is every reason to believe, that if I had taken four or five inspirations, instead of three, they would have destroyed life immediately, without producing any painful sensation."

After this proof of the poisonous nature of carburetted hydrogen—after the cases of sickness and headache which have occurred in consequence of its inhalation at the theatre, am I not borne out in my opinion, that *its introduction into our apartments is fraught with danger?*

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ON THE PERIODS BEST ADAPTED FOR MEALS. BY DR. PARIS,  
M.D. F.R.S.

Dr. Paris has just published a work on dietetics, which, though it may furnish no new facts, will still draw attention from his

previous successful career as an author. Anxious that our readers should benefit by the opinions of others, we have extracted the following:—

It is not extraordinary that a discrepancy of opinion should exist upon a question which involves so many fluctuating circumstances. Controversy upon this, as upon many other subjects of diet, has engendered a disbelief in its importance; and this scepticism has given a plausible pretext for indulgence on the one hand, and protracted fasting on the other, as the wishes or habits of mankind may have rendered most agreeable. It will, therefore, be difficult to convince the public of the necessity of those regulations which are so essential for the maintenance of health, or for the cure of disease. We have been told that the best time for dining is, “*for a rich man, when he can get an appetite, and for a poor man when he can get food.*” But appetite in health is regulated by habit, and in disease it acts but as an imperfect monitor. Certain general principles, therefore, deduced from observation and experience, must be laid down for our guidance; and these again in their application must be modified and adapted to the circumstances of every particular case.

All physicians concur in advocating the importance of regularity, both as it regards the number of meals and the periods at which they are taken. Those who have weak stomachs will, by such a system, not only digest more food, but will be less liable to those affections which arise from its imperfect assimilation, because, as Dr. Darwin has justly observed, they have, in such a case, both the stimulus of the aliment they take, and the periodical habit, to assist the process. The periods of hunger and thirst are undoubtedly catenated with certain portions of time, or degrees of exhaustion, or other diurnal habits of life; and if the pain of hunger be not relieved by taking food at the usual time, it is liable to cease till the next period of time or other habits recur.

#### *Luncheons generally Objectionable.*

As these periods must vary in every individual, according to the powers of digestion, the degree of exercise taken, and the quality of the food, it frequently becomes necessary, in civilized life, to have recourse to intermediate meals, or *luncheons*, in order to support the powers of the stomach during the long interval which may occur between the conventional periods of repast. But to the dyspeptic patient, in search of health, such indulgences are rarely to be permitted, unless, indeed, the circumstances under which he is placed leave him no option between long



fasting and supplementary refection. I am more anxious to impress this precept upon the minds of invalids, as the anxiety of friends, and the popular errors which exist upon the subject of diet, are too apt to establish the mischievous belief, that "*a little and often*" will be more likely to restore the languid stomach to its healthy tone than moderate meals at more protracted intervals. The specious aphorism of Dr. Temple, that "the stomach of an invalid is like a schoolboy, always at mischief unless it be employed," has occasioned more dyspeptic disease than that respectable physician could ever have cured, had his practice been as successful as that of *Æsculapius*, and his life as long as that of an antediluvian. The theory upon which this objection rests has already been explained. The natural process of digestion is thus disturbed, and the healthy action of the stomach, as evinced by the return of moderate appetite, is entirely prevented. In answer to this reasoning, the patient will sometimes tell you, that frequent refreshment is essential to his comfort; that a sensation of faintness obliges him to fly to such a resource, in order to rescue himself from the distress which it occasions. This, in general, is an artificial want, created by habit, and must be cured by restoring the patient to regular meals, which is to be effected by gradually lengthening the intervals of eating. But, since no general rule is without its exceptions, so it may be observed, that there are cases of disease, in which the stomach is unable to bear any considerable quantity of aliment at one time, whence it becomes indispensable to repeat it at short intervals, in order to afford a sufficient proportion of nutriment; but as the patient acquires strength, such a system should be gradually abandoned.

#### *The Number of Meals.*

But though the advantage of regular meals at stated periods is desirable, it has been much disputed how many should be allowed in the day: some physicians have considered one, others two, three, or even five necessary. It is, perhaps, impossible to lay down a general rule that shall apply to every particular case. In some persons, the food rarely remains longer than three hours in the stomach; in others four, five, or even six hours. It is evident, that the repetition of the meals ought to be regulated by this circumstance, always avoiding the extremes of long fasting and repletion. Some nations have been satisfied with one meal a day; but the stomach would thus be oppressed with too large a quantity, and in the interval would suffer from the want of some nourishment in it. Such a plan, therefore, is neither calculated for persons of robust health, and who are engaged in

much bodily exertion, and consequently require large supplies, nor for those of a weak habit, who are not able either to *take* or to *digest* such a quantity of aliment in a single meal as will be sufficient to supply the waste of the body during twenty-four hours. Celsus recommends the healthy to take food rather twice in the day than once; and Sanctorius says, that “the body becomes more heavy and uneasy after six pounds taken at one meal, than after eight taken at three; and that he who makes but one meal in the day, let him eat much or little, is pursuing a system that must ultimately injure him.” In my opinion, an invalid may safely take three frugal meals; or, on some occasions, even four, provided a certain quantity of exercise be insisted upon. It is reported, that when Alexander the Great turned away his cooks, on proceeding upon a march, he observed that he had no further occasion for such assistants, as he carried with him superior cooks;—a long morning’s journey to create an appetite for his dinner, and a frugal dinner to give a relish to his supper.

I shall now consider the nature of the different meals, and the periods at which they can be taken with the greatest advantage; repeating, however, that all general rules must be modified in their application, according to particular circumstances.

#### *The Quality of the different Meals.*

BREAKFAST is, perhaps, the most natural, and not the least important of our meals; for, since many hours must have intervened since the last meal, the stomach ought to be in a condition to receive a fresh supply of aliment. As all the food in the body has, during the night, been digested, we might presume, that a person in the morning ought to feel an appetite on rising. This, however, is not always the fact; the gastric juice does not appear to be secreted in any quantity during sleep, while the muscular energies of the stomach, although invigorated by repose, are not immediately called into action: it is therefore advisable to allow an interval to pass before we commence the meal of breakfast. We seem to depart more from the custom of our hardy ancestors, with regard to breakfast, than any other meal. A maid of honour in the court of Elizabeth breakfasted upon beef, and drank ale after it; while the sportsman, and even the day labourer of the present day frequently breakfast upon tea. The periods of their meals, however, were so generally different from those of modern times, that we cannot establish any useful comparison between them, without taking into consideration the collateral circumstances which must have influenced their operation.

*A Liquid Breakfast ; why salutary.*

The solidity of our breakfast should be regulated by the labour and exercise to be taken, and to the time of dining. Where the dinner hour is late, we should recommend a more nutritious meal, in order to supersede the necessity of a *luncheon*, or what the French call *un déjeuner à la fourchette*. At the same time it must be remembered, that dyspeptic invalids are frequently incommoded by such a repast, if it be copious. Heartburn is a common effect of a heavy breakfast, especially if it be accompanied with much diluting liquid ; and a question has consequently arisen as to the propriety of taking much fluid on these occasions. Some have recommended a *dry breakfast*, as peculiarly wholesome ; and we have been told, that the celebrated Marcus Antoninus made a rule to eat a hard biseuit the moment he got up. I think it will not be difficult to shew the reasons why liquids are essentially necessary at this meal. To say nothing of the instinctive desire which we all feel for them, it is evident that there is a certain acrimony and rankness in all our secretions at that time ; the breath has frequently a peculiar taint in the morning, which is not perceptible at subsequent periods of the day. This may be explained by the loss which the fluids of the body have sustained by perspiration, as well as by the quality of newly-elaborated matter introduced into the circulation during sleep. The experiments of Sanctorius have fully demonstrated the superior power of sleep in promoting the perspiration ; inasmuch, that a person sleeping healthfully, and without any unnatural means to promote it, will, in a given space of time, perspire insensibly twice as much as when awake. This fact is sufficient to prove the necessity of a liquid breakfast. Every physician, in the course of his practice, must have been consulted upon the propriety of taking meat, tea, or coffee, at breakfast. I shall, therefore, offer to the profession the results of my experience upon this subject ; and I am encouraged in this duty by a conviction of the advantages which have arisen from my views of the question. A person who has not strong powers of digestion, is frequently distressed by the usual association of tea with bread and butter, or, what is more injurious, with hot buttered toast or muffin ; the oily part of which is separated by the heat of the liquid, and remains in the stomach, producing, on its cardiac orifice, an irritation which produces the sensation of heartburn. On such occasions I always recommend dry toast, without any addition. New bread, or spongy rolls, should be carefully avoided. Tea, to many persons, is a beverage which contains too little nutriment : I have therefore found barley water,



or a thin gruel, a very useful substitute. A gentleman some time since applied to me, in consequence of an acidity which constantly tormented him during the interval between breakfast and dinner, but at no other period of the day: he had tried the effects of milk, tea, coffee, and cocoa, but uniformly without success. I advised him to eat toasted bread, with a slice of the lean part of cold mutton, and to drink a large cup of warm barley water, for the purpose of dilution. Since the adoption of this plan he has entirely lost his complaint, and continues to enjoy his morning diversions without molestation. Hard eggs, although they require a long period for their digestion, are not generally offensive to the stomach; they may therefore be taken with propriety, whenever, from necessity or choice, the dinner is appointed at a late season.

**DINNER.**—Among the Romans this was rather considered as a refreshment to prevent faintness, than as a meal to convey nourishment. It consisted principally of some light repast, without animal food or wine; but in modern times it is considered the principal meal, at which every species of luxurious gratification is indulged in. With regard to the proper period at which invalids should dine, physicians entertain but one opinion; it should be in the middle of the day, or about two or three o'clock. Sir A. Carlisle has justly observed, that it is thus best adapted to the decline of animal vigour, because it affords a timely replenishment before the evening waning of the vital powers, and which naturally precedes the hour of rest; besides which, the custom tends to prevent intemperance; while late hours and a consequent state of exhaustion demand, or seem to justify, an excessive indulgence in strong drinks, and in variety of food. The exact period, however, of dinner must be directed by the physician with reference to the necessary habits of his patient, the nature and time of his breakfast, and, above all, to the rapidity or slowness of his digestion. I will illustrate the importance of this precept by the relation of a case which lately fell under my immediate notice and care. A gentleman, resident in a distant part of the country, applied for my advice under the following circumstances:—His health was generally good, but he had lost all appetite for his dinner, and constantly experienced a sensation of weight and uneasiness after that meal. I prescribed some laxative and bitter medicines, and after a fortnight had elapsed I again saw him. He then told me that he had not experienced the sensations of which he had complained for some time; but that the circumstance afforded him but little encouragement, as he had uniformly found the same beneficial change whenever he resided in London, which he was at a loss

to explain, as he took the same exercise in the country. I then inquired whether the hour at which he dined was the same in both situations? when it appeared, that in the country he dined at three, and in London at about six. I immediately suspected the origin of the complaint, and fortunately touched the spring which unfolded the whole secret: his digestion was remarkably slow, and the dinner in the country was served up before the breakfast had been duly digested. By my advice this evil was remedied; and he has never since had any reason to complain of want of appetite, or of the weight and oppression which had so long distressed him.

TEA.—There is no subject which has occasioned a greater controversy amongst dietetic writers than the subject of tea. By one party it is decried as a poison; by another it is extolled as a medicine, and a valuable addition to our food; while some refer all its beneficial effects to the water thus introduced into the system, and its evil consequences to the high temperature at which it is drank. In order to understand the value of the different arguments which have been adduced in support, or to the disparagement, of this beverage, it will be necessary to inquire into its composition. Two kinds of tea are imported into this country, distinguished by the epithets *black* and *green*. Both contain astringent and narcotic principles, but in very different proportions; the latter producing by far the most powerful influence upon the nervous system. As the primary operation of every narcotic is stimulant, tea is found to exhilarate and refresh us, although there exist individuals who are so morbidly sensible to the action of certain bodies of this class, that feelings of depression, accompanied with various nervous sensations and an unnatural vigilance, follow the potation of a single cup of strong tea; while others experience, from the same cause, symptoms indicative of derangement of the digestive organs; but these are exceptions from which no general rule ought to be deduced. The salubrity of the infusion to the general mass of the community is established by sufficient testimony to outweigh any argument founded on individual cases. It must, however, be admitted, that if this beverage be taken too soon after dinner, the digestion of the meal may be disturbed by the distention it will occasion, as well as by its influence as a diluent; the narcotic and astringent principles may also operate in arresting chymification; but when a physician gives it his sanction, it is with the understanding that it shall be taken in moderate quantities, and at appointed seasons. When drank four hours after the principal meal, it will assist the ulterior stages of digestion, and promote the insensible perspiration; while it will afford to

the stomach a grateful stimulus after its labours. With regard to the objection urged against its use, on the ground of temperature, it will be only necessary to refer to the observations which have been offered on this subject. In enumerating the advantages of tea, it must not be forgotten that it has introduced and cherished a spirit of sobriety; and it must have been remarked by every physician of general practice, that those persons who dislike tea, frequently supply its place by spirit and water. The addition of milk certainly diminishes the astringency of tea; that of sugar may please the palate, but cannot modify the virtues of the infusion.

SUPPER.—In the time of Elizabeth, the nobility and gentry were accustomed to dine at eleven, to sup between five and six, and to go to bed at ten. It is therefore evident, that any argument in favour of this meal, founded upon the healthy condition of our ancestors, must be fallacious. By supper, in modern times, we understand a late meal just before bed-time. But as sleep is not favourable to every stage of digestion, it is very questionable whether retiring to rest with a full stomach can, under any circumstances, be salutary. During the first part of the process, or that of chymification, a person so situated may, perhaps, sleep quietly, unless indeed the morbid distention of the stomach should impede respiration, and occasion distress; but when the food has passed out of the stomach, and the processes of chyliification and sanguification have been established, the natural propensity of the body is for activity, and the invalid awakes at this period, and remains in a feverish state for some hours. Upon this general principle, then, suppers are to be avoided; that is to say, *hearty* suppers, which require the active powers of the stomach for their digestion. The same objection cannot be urged against a light repast, which is generally useful to dyspeptics; and it has been truly and facetiously observed, that “some invalids need not put on their nightcaps if they do not first bribe their stomachs to good behaviour.” An egg lightly boiled, or a piece of dry toast, with a small quantity of white wine negus, will often secure a tranquil night, which would otherwise be passed with restlessness. Amongst the intellectual part of the community, there has ever existed a strong predilection in favour of suppers; the labour of the day has been performed; the hour is sacred to conviviality, and the period is one which is not likely to be interrupted by the calls of business. To those in health, such indulgences may be occasionally allowed; but the physician should be cautious how he gives his sanction to their wholesomeness. The hilarity which is felt at this period of the day must not be received as a signal for re-



pairing to the banquet, but as an indication of the sanguification of the previous meal.

[*To be Continued.*]

## ON THE TREATMENT OF WORMS.

### *General Symptoms.*

There is no ambiguous symptom of disease which the existence of worms in some constitutions may not assume. Some of the symptoms are so extraordinary, that superstitious people have often attributed them to witchcraft. Baglivi, a very learned Italian physician, says, "observe, that there is no symptom so strange, irregular, or distressing, which may not depend on worms; they are sometimes so horrid and extraordinary, that the vulgar impute them to the devil, or some of his witches." The most common, however, and which always ought to excite suspicion, are the belly being too hard, tense, and larger than natural; a peculiarly disagreeable odour of the breath, especially in a morning before taking food; the tongue furred, notwithstanding the increased flow of saliva into the mouth; a particular heaviness, or languid blueish appearance about the eyes; a swelling and paleness of the lips, especially the upper lip; itching of the nose, and sometimes a particular whiteness of it; pale, thin, crude urine, and in some instances of the colour of whey, or quite white; the pulse sometimes hard, sometimes weak and quick, but always unequal; sour eructations; a sensation about the navel, which the patient if old enough, endeavours to describe as a pinching or nipping pain; bowels very irregular, either obstinately costive, or very loose; appetite also irregular, sometimes loathing all manner of food, at other times uncommonly voracious. These are the most constant and unerring symptoms of worms.

But in some cases, the countenance will appear thin, emaciated, and pale; and at other times, the face will be flushed, and like crimson. Mucous stools are very usual, depending upon the irritation of the worms in the intestines; griping pains; a short dry cough; a great thirst; vomiting; starting during sleep, and grinding of the teeth; frequent pains in the sides; a listlessness and want of inclination to take exercise, on account of weakness; prolapsus ani, or falling of the fundament; and inflammation of the eyes.

In not a few instances, loss of speech occurs; and if the disease be neglected and suffered to advance, the mucous stools increase; cold sweats supervene; convulsions, epileptic fits, palpitation of the heart, frequent faintings, hiccup, hectic fever, apoplexy, and finally death itself.

It is to be observed, however, that *other* diseases may produce the greater part, if not all the foregoing symptoms, without the patient possessing a single worm of any sort whatever.

*Symptoms similar in Hydrocephalus.*

Hydrocephalus, or watery head, or dropsy of the brain, as it is commonly called, is attended by many symptoms similar to those occasioned by worms—as disturbed sleep, startings, grinding of the teeth during sleep; greediness of food; flushing of the cheeks; sickness; picking of the nose; and the urine often depositing a sediment of a light colour. There are, indeed, so many symptoms in hydrocephalus, resembling those arising from worms; from diseased mesenteric glands; from dentition, and other irritating causes, that it is difficult to fix upon any which shall particularly characterize this protiform disease. The surest indications of a watery head in children, are lassitude, slight pyrexia, pain of the head, a slow pulse, drowsiness, and the pupils of the eyes dilated, and not readily contracting on being turned to the light.

I think the difference in the state of the pulse, when examined by an experienced practitioner, may, with other attendant symptoms, tend greatly to distinguish the difference between the watery head and worms. In the dropsy of the brain, the pulse is remarkably irregular; sometimes as low as sixty-eight beats in a minute, and often as high as 120 or 150, which is almost too rapid to be counted, varying at different times of the same day. A squinting, also a frowning brow, impatience of any posture but that of lying down; a frequent raising of the hand to the forehead; a great drowsiness, and an obstinate costiveness, assist greatly in discriminating the watery head from other complaints. Dr. Fothergill, than whom few have had more opportunities of seeing and comparing both diseases, says, that he had seen some cases which he thought were in the last stage of hydrocephalus, but were happily recovered in consequence of finding that they were only worm cases too long neglected.

It does, however, very frequently happen, that in the last stage of that, and every other fatally-tending disease, some of the worms, as if they had a presentiment of what was going to happen, shift their quarters and make their appearance; this removes all doubt respecting that one complaint.

The disease of the mesenteric glands, as previously noticed, and which occurs in the same constitutions as the watery head, and worms, and depends on similar causes, leads directly to a wasting of the flesh, and paleness, technically called *tabes mesenterica*, or mesenteric fever, or mesenteric consumption.

The cause of this wasting, however, is very different from that of worms; in the former, the channels through which the nourishment ought to pass into the body are blocked up; whereas in the latter, the worms devour the nourishment which ought to go to the support of the system.

The peculiar hardness of the belly, nearly resembling that of a board, may, however, very generally be depended on as distinguishing this complaint from those which proceed from worms.

Since, then, the difficulty of pronouncing upon the nature of disorders supposed to arise from these animals is so great, before any worms have been actually seen; and where, grounded upon some of the foregoing symptoms, there is good reason to suspect them, the following trial should immediately be had recourse to

*To determine the existence of Worms.*

Let four or five grains of calomel be given in treacle, jelly, or sugar, at bed-time; and one of the following purgatives on the morrow morning, the dose being regulated by the age and other circumstances of the child, viz.

A scruple of rhubarb;—*this is the best.*—Fifteen grains of jalap;—*less nauseous.* A cup of strong senna tea. Ten or twelve grains of scammony.

If there are any number of worms, this treatment will expel some of them; and at the same time direct us in our future conduct, by shewing with which kind of them the sufferer is infested.

*Explanation of Symptoms.*

The weakness, ravenous appetite, paleness, costiveness, hardness of the belly, and flatulence, may fairly be accounted for by the deficiency of the chyle, or nutriment, which should go to our support, which is devoured by the worms as fast as it arrives at the place where they inhabit.

The offensive smell of the breath, the fœtid and sour eructations, the discoloured appearance of the stools, and the diarrhœa, are not so readily accounted for; some writers, however, think that the excrements of worms are the cause of them.

Their motion, and incessant gnawing, and sucking the coats of the intestines, must produce an irritation which is sufficient to account for the vomiting, sickness, tenesmus, St. Vitus's dance, epilepsy, convulsions, and all the evils connected with nervous affections.

Such are the general symptoms; let us next inquire into the *Causes, which favour the Production and Increase of Worms.*

The great difficulty of accounting for the manner in which



the worms first get into the body, induced several great men, with Hippocrates at their head, to believe that children may be born with them. I have never witnessed a single fact to countenance any such opinion of the origin of these intestine enemies.

Our opinion is, that children are not troubled with them as long as they are fed on the mother's milk alone. Mr. Chamberlaine, indeed, says, "I have certainly seen both the round worm and those called ascarides, in children in the month; and I most pointedly maintain the opinion to be erroneous, which asserts, that children never have worms while they live on the breast." He does not say, however, that, to his certain knowledge, these children had never tasted any food but the mother's milk, during that month.

The opinion that the eggs of intestinal worms are taken in with our vegetable food, or water, appears to deserve our serious attention, as far more probable.

"It is not, however, of so much importance to ascertain the origin of intestinal worms, as to examine what circumstances are most favourable to their continuance, in number, bulk, and strength."

That debility of the organs of digestion greatly promotes the generation and rapid multiplication of worms, appears from this; when we have strengthened those powers, the worms diminish in number and strength, and often disappear altogether. We know that children under the age of ten, live almost entirely on vegetable food; that they are very fond of fruit, even before it is ripe, and if they cannot get peaches, nectarines, melons, or pine apples, they substitute raw turnips, peas, currants, apples, crabs, gooseberries, and sloes, ripe or unripe. Instead of proper exercise in the open air, they are shut up in small school rooms, where very often they have but just room enough to sit.

This period of life, from one to nine or ten, is, for the reasons above-mentioned, the worm age of childhood.

After this period, children begin to use more animal food, more regular exercise, and accordingly worms become less common.

If any further proof could be wanted of the power of crude washy vegetables in producing and perpetuating the evils arising from worms, we may find it in the sufferings of the Algerines from that kind of diet; from those of the negroes in the West Indies, and many others, beside the children of the poor among ourselves. Another great cause of worms is, bad living, as it is very properly called; that is, living on unwholesome diet, which the children of the poor in the country, and in towns, some-

times do ; either from necessity or choice ; such as turnips, raw peas, apples, pears, sloes, &c. with very little animal food.

Not only this sort of bad living, where the fault is in the kind and quality of the food ; but an insufficient quantity of that which is in other respects wholesome and good, disposes rapidly to the production of these animals. Hence we see many persons, who before imprisonment had never been infested by these intestine enemies, become the prey of them in a short time after they have been shut up in a prison, and reduced to a scanty allowance of bread and water, and six ounces of meat twice a week.

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### EFFECTS OF TOBACCO ON LONG LIFE.

The doctors would fainly persuade you that all your little enjoyments, such as tea, tobacco, or a cheerful family glass of liquor, destroy your nerves and shorten your days. We have shown you strong proofs to the contrary in several instances ; but as the subject is important, we shall keep it up both in this and in future pages. We entirely differ with the mysterious doctors whose wisdom consists in foolish words of no meaning, and Greek and Latin nonsense about the *narcotic* and *sternutatory* effects of this *errhine*, agreeing as we do with the great Lord Bacon, that “ it affects men with a secret kind of delight, insomuch that they who have once innured themselves to it, can hardly afterwards leave it ; and no doubt, it hath power to lighten the body and to shake off weariness.” Nicholas Monardus, a German physician, was much wiser than our jabbering doctors ; for he wrote a large volume on the virtues of tobacco. But let us come to our proofs that tobacco promotes long life.

Dr. Robertson, in his report of the Greenwich hospital, distinctly mentions the names of 75 pensioners, above 80 years of age, who had all used tobacco in all its different forms ; in particular Paul Blank, aged 94, whose sight, hearing, and memory were all good, who had used tobacco very freely for 84 years, having begun to use it at the age of ten. John Moore, the oldest man in the house at the time of the report, being 102 years, chewed tobacco freely and though his eyes were failing, his faculties were otherwise good. It is quite unnecessary to go into the particulars of the other 73 cases, as what we have said must convince any reasonable person that so far from being detrimental, tobacco is highly serviceable to health.

In another report, drawn up from the pensioners in Kilmainham hospital, Ireland, 31 of those above 80 years of age, had been in the habit of using tobacco, either by smoking, chewing,

or taking snuff. The particular description of these 31 old men is, we conceive, quite unnecessary.

On inquiring into the number of old people in 44 different workhouses in London and its vicinity, it was found, that there were 181 individuals above 80 years of age who used tobacco freely. Our proof we think is complete, and the doctors who wage war against the enjoyments and pleasures of the people, do not deserve another word.

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CURE FOR CHRONIC RHEUMATISM. BY DR. CRANE.

This disease, in many instances, may be considered as incurable, and the unfortunate sufferer is doomed to lead a life of pain and uneasiness, which embitters his hours by day, and deprives him of rest by night. Fearfully he views each passing cloud, and, sensible to the change of weather, he becomes a living barometer. Happy, indeed, would it be, and great would be the joy of thousands, if a plan of cure could be discovered for those who are afflicted with chronic rheumatism. This consideration encourages me to hope that I may be permitted to state the effects of a remedy, which has at least in a few instances proved beneficial. Accident led me to the employment of cubeb in chronic rheumatism; and in several cases it has afforded great relief, although in others it has produced no effect whatever.

The cubeb was prescribed for a gentleman, in consequence of having contracted the venereal, who had for several years previously been afflicted with chronic rheumatism. He observed to me, that whilst taking this remedy his rheumatic pains were also much alleviated. After the disappearance of the venereal, I advised him to continue taking the cubeb in drachm doses twice a-day, for several weeks. In the course of two months, he found he was nearly free from pain, and that he could move his legs and arms with greater ease. During the following Winter, he was much less troubled with his rheumatic pains than he had been during the last four or five years; and whenever he feels any return of his complaint, he takes the cubeb for a few weeks.

A young woman, about twenty years of age, who had been under my care for two months, on account of the pain she suffered from chronic rheumatism, deriving no relief from the remedies employed, I determined to prescribe for her the cubeb. She took them in half drachm doses three times a-day. On the third day, she said her pain was much less severe; and in six



weeks she was completely free from her complaint, and able to return to her service.

In some cases of chronic rheumatism, I found the cubebs to be apparently useless. The cause of this failure of success might, perhaps, in some of the cases be accounted for, not from any fault in the medicine, but from a want of perseverance in the regular use of it; as we often find that when a remedy is to be taken for several weeks it is taken irregularly, and even omitted for a day or two without the medical attendant being informed of such an omission; and then upon the remedy falls that blame which is due only to the patient and his friends. This is not unfrequently the case amongst the lower classes of patients, who have little faith in any medicine which does not act both effectually and speedily, and who are very apt to tell their medical attendant they are regularly taking the remedy which he has prescribed for them, when the truth is they are not doing so. The medicine is best taken in cold water or milk.

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#### DELETERIOUS EFFECTS OF OPIUM ON YOUNG CHILDREN.

It is generally understood that opium is deleterious to young children; but it is not so universally known, as it ought to be, that exceedingly small quantities of opium, much smaller than would readily be believed, have sometimes destroyed the lives of children, and have often put them in great hazard.

One grain and a half of Dover's powder, which contains scarcely the sixth of a grain of opium, frightened the mother of a child exceedingly, by producing a continued sleep in a child of nearly two days. In another case, where a grain only of Dover's powder was given, with half a grain of calomel, to stop a bowel complaint under which the child's strength was rapidly sinking, although it evidently saved its life, yet the profound sleep which it occasioned, and the deadly paleness which appeared in the child's countenance, induced considerable apprehension that the remedy would have done what it prevented the disease from accomplishing.

The first of these children was a stout but very small infant, of eight months old, the other was a weakly baby of little more than three weeks old. It may be said that in both these cases a large quantity of opium was given, considering the age of the children; but there are instances on record where life has been lost in fine healthy infants from the exhibition of a single tea spoonful of syrup of poppies. In the following case, however, the deleterious effect of a much smaller quantity of opium than that is very apparent.

A lady had been accustomed to give her infants, when they were cross, a mixture, each tea spoonful of which contained one sixth of a drop of laudanum combined with rhubarb. At the birth of one of her children, she purchased a fresh bottle of medicine, and at different times gave more than an ounce of it before the child was six weeks old. At this time, in consequence of improper feeding, the child's bowels became much deranged; its flesh was wasted, and its countenance was far less healthy than before. Under these circumstances, a tea spoonful was given to the child early in the morning; it was repeated at night, and again the next morning. A short time after this, although the child had taken no more, in the three doses, than half a drop of laudanum, and that distributed over more than twenty-four hours, it sunk into the deepest sleep, so that it hardly seemed to breathe at all; the appearance of its countenance was a mixture of yellow and a dark coloured paleness; and the medical attendant, as well as its parents, was much alarmed, especially as the quantity of laudanum appeared to be by no means sufficient to produce so great an effect, and therefore it seemed probable that some other urgent cause of evil was acting on the child's constitution.

The symptoms gradually subsided, and as the mother had by this time learned that quieting the child's uncomfortable sensations by opium, was a bad substitute for giving it the food which nature intended it to have, she procured a wet nurse for her infant, and it thus soon recovered its pristine health and spirits.

This case is particularly instructive; not only because it shews how small a quantity of opium may endanger the life of a child, but because it explains how these small quantities will produce so great an effect at one time and not at another. Whilst the child was in stronger health it repeatedly took the same medicine without inconvenience, but immediately that its health and strength became impaired to a certain point, the medicine took effect, and it thus narrowly escaped death.

Even medical men may receive much instruction by this lesson; but it should not fail to teach mothers that they should on no account give opium to their children, except under the direction of those who are alone able to judge of the state of the constitution in which it may or may not be given with safety to a child.

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#### BLEARED EYES, AND THE MEANS OF CURING THEM.

This is a disease in which a humour trickles down incessantly from the eye-lids, which reddens their borders and glues

them to one another. When this disease is examined narrowly, one may see that it is a train of small superficial ulcers, which are almost imperceptible, ranged all along the border of each eyelid, as well within as without. These little ulcers are very difficult to be cured, when they have been neglected at first. The method of curing them, is to apply frequently to the eye-lids linen cloths dipt in a decoction of lint seed, fennel-seed, the flowers of colt's-foot, and the leaves of mallows and marsh-mallows; to which may be added, a little of the sugar of lead. The way of making this decoction is as follows: take a handful of the leaves of mallows and marsh-mallows, half a handful of the flowers of colt's-foot, half an ounce of lintseed, and three drachms of fennel seed; boil all these together in a pound of common water for a quarter of an hour, then strain them through a linen cloth, and in the strained liquor dissolve half a drachm of the sugar of lead. Besides this, it will be right to purge with a little manna dissolved in fumitory and scabious water warmed; and the use of tea ought not to be neglected.

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#### ECONOMICAL WAY OF MAKING CURRANT-JELLY.

When you have stripped your currants from their stalks, throw them into a stone jar; and when you have stopped the mouth of it as close as possible, set it into a kettle of boiling hot water that rises to half way of your jar; when it has stood over the fire in such boiling water for half an hour, take it off, and strain off all the juice you find in it through a hair sieve. Put a pound of double refined sugar to a pint of your juice; and then set your ingredients over a quick, clear fire, in a bell-metal skillet, and keep stirring them till all your sugar is well dissolved; then, as you will find a scum arise, take it very carefully and cleanly off; when your jelly is sufficiently fine, pour it into gally-pots; when it is cold, have some white paper in readiness cut of the exact size of the mouths of your pots; then dip those papers into a small quantity of brandy, and lay them upon your jelly; then cover the mouths close with white paper, that has holes pricked through it. You may put some of your jelly into glasses, if you think proper; but take care to paper them as you do your pots. Take care to keep them in a place that is perfectly dry, that no damp may come to them.

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#### TO MAKE RASPBERRY-JELLY.

To one pint of your currant-jelly put a quart of raspberries, and mash them well together; then set them over a gentle fire, in a clean saucepan, and keep them stirring till you find they



boil. In about half a dozen minutes afterwards they will be enough. Pour your ingredients into gally-pots, or glasses, and paper them as you would your currants. They will keep good, and have the full flavour of the raspberries, for two or three years successively, if required.

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#### CUSTOMS AND HABITS BENEFICIAL TO HEALTH.

*On Sleeping.*—The rule of going early to bed, and rising early, is certainly preferable to the opposite system; but can, by custom, be, to a certain degree, dispensed with, provided regularity be attended to in both these respects. This concession, however, does not sanction what are called fashionable hours, or sitting up all night, and sleeping during a large proportion of the day, which is evidently preposterous, and must be ruinous to the health, and injurious to the interests of those who have any business to carry on.

The young and the middle aged, if in health, ought not to spend above eight hours in bed, or from eleven to seven in Summer, and from twelve to eight in Winter. If the remaining sixteen, however, are properly employed, the eight devoted to repose need not be regretted. If fewer hours suffice, it is better to sit up at night, than to rise in the morning by candle light, which often has an unpleasant and severe effect upon the eyes.

*On Rising.*—After rising, it is an excellent custom to wash and dress immediately, or, at any rate, before breakfast, so as to be ready to go out when business or exercise requires it. If dressing is deferred till after breakfast, a great deal more time is wasted, or lounged away, than is compatible either with healthful exercise, or with the rules by which a man of business ought to conduct himself.

The morning toilet, when properly gone about, is of great importance to health. The chief object to be attended to is cleanliness of person, even to minutiae; a daily change of linen is highly desirable; a frequent one is necessary.

*The Eyes.*—A careful attention to the eyes, where they are either weak, or liable to be diseased, cannot be too rigidly enforced. For that purpose, it is useful to dip the corner of a towel, doubled down, in hot water, by the application of which, for about a dozen of times, any slight inflammation in the eyes may be removed. If that is not sufficient, the eyes, with the lids closed, ought to be steamed, by boiling water, in a jug with a handle, so that the steam may, at pleasure, be applied with increased or diminished force. Even violent inflammations are lessened

or cured by this application. After the hot, use cold water, in a manner which it is very difficult to describe; but either a large handkerchief, or a small towel, should be plaited up, so as to be in breadth from three to five inches, and then put into a bason of cold water. With your eyes shut, and stooping over the bason, you are then to give several smart strokes, (from 30 to 40 or 50,) with the wet towel or handkerchief, to the centre of your face. You must have a towel ready spread out near you, on a chair or table, with which you must remove all the moisture about the eyes, before you open them; and if they are tender, hold the towel on your spread hand, between you and the light, before they are opened. Others look, with the eyes open, into a bason of cold water, for the space of a minute, with a view of bracing the eyes; but I have found the practice immediately above described the most effectual.

*The Head.*—If you wear a wig, as all persons after sixty ought to do, you should wash your head every morning with cold water; and it is an excellent practice, to dip a strong flesh-brush into the water for that purpose, with which you ought both to wash, and to rub your head at the same time.

*The Feet.*—Every morning the feet should either be washed in cold or tepid water, or cleaned with a wet towel, and great attention paid to the cleaning and paring of the nails.

*Shaving.*—In shaving, use cold water, for hot relaxes the throat, and occasions sore throats and colds. The razor may be dipt in hot water, which is believed by many to improve the edge.

*The Teeth.*—Attention to the teeth is of the utmost importance, with a view of keeping them always clean, but not endeavouring to give them a brilliant white, which destroys the enamel. The brushes are more for the advantage of the gums, than of the teeth, and might properly be called gum-brushes. The best are those which rub up and down, for the others do not prevent the growth of tartar between the teeth. The common tooth-powders are extremely dangerous, destroying the enamel of the teeth, which, it is supposed, is the only substance in the body that is not constantly renewed. Once lost, it is never regained. Powdered charcoal is recommended by some, as likely to prevent injury from any putrid substances adhering to the teeth or gums; but others prefer oatmeal, as softer and less acrid. When the teeth are neglected, the gums become first diseased, the breath becomes tainted and noxious, the teeth then rapidly decay, and the food, not being properly masticated, must occasion various complaints.

*The Mouth.*—The mouth and tongue should be carefully

cleaned every night and morning, and the mouth gargled with cold water, a practice that should never be omitted by those who are subject to sore-throats.

*The Flesh-brush.*—The use of flesh-brushes, which I consider to be the best of all frictions, is an effectual means, both of preserving health, and of warding off the infirmities of old age. By eye-brushes, (a late invention, made of soft materials,) that important part of the body might be longer preserved in a perfect state. By brushing the ears, and behind them, deafness may be warded off, and in various instances has been cured. By the same means, sore-throats may generally be prevented. Any weakness in the arms may be obviated by brushing them night and morning; and by using friction of the same sort, to the stomach and thighs, a degree of vigour is given to the body, of which persons are not at all aware, otherwise the practice would be more generally adopted. The feet also should be rubbed with the flesh-brush after they are cleaned.

*Best time of using the Flesh-brush.*—Having recommended the use of the flesh-brush to a gentleman, when at the age of sixty-seven, he desired to know, when was the best time for applying it; the answer was, whenever most convenient. Being in London, and consequently denied the exercise he usually took in the country, and being accustomed to retire early to bed, he was subject to waking in the night. He took advantage of these opportunities, to strip off his shirt and flannel waistcoat, to jump out of bed, and to brush, (holding a brush in each hand,) till he was tired, and then went to bed again. This plan answered, and his sleep became unbroken, till his usual hour of rising. He had, for many years, applied cold water, at all seasons, as soon as he was out of bed, but now changed it for the flesh-brush, using it during fifteen or twenty minutes; this continued for about three months; and it is remarkable, that a cutaneous eruption, somewhat resembling a nettle springe, which often appeared upon parts of the body, entirely ceased, nor did it re-appear till after the application of cold water, always followed by the brush, but in a degree seldom, and less than formerly. It is more than a year since he began the use of the brush, and his health in general has, upon the whole, been better than for thirty years before. He had been much subject to rheumatic pains, but they have been brushed away with great success, once only excepted in the hip, and then, by applying salt and water, strong enough to swim an egg, rubbing it in with the hand before a fire on going to bed, two of these applications carried it off. He does not know to what to attribute his good health, under God, unless to the flesh-



brush, as no other variation in his habits of living took place. It appears to him, that it answers the purpose of moderate and healthy exercise, assists in freeing the skin from all impurities, and keeps the pores clear and open. The brush is applied to the back by means of a leather strap across its centre, thus rendering three brushes unnecessary. The harder the brushes are, the better for the operation.

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#### COMPLAINTS OF THE BRAIN AND HEAD.

The pains, feelings, distressing sensations, experienced by many, would, in indistinct language, be denominated a nervous case—an expression indefinable, obscure, helpless! In plain language, we term the case a slight brain complaint. Over exercise tires the limbs, without occasioning disease; over exercise of mind fatigues the vessels of the brain. Mind is an absolute labour, or action of the blood-vessels of the brain, and more or less is required according to the quantity and nature of the thoughts.

“ It takes more *blood* to rouse a lion,  
 “ Than to start a hare.”

The brain, like other congeries or bundles of vessels requires rest, even under circumstances the most favourable. Rest is demanded from thoughts the most interesting; extension is limited, and thoughts the most splendid, from demanding more blood, and a greater lateral action in the vessels are of a short duration, and in quantity necessarily fewer—sublimity is rare. The vessels of the brain collapsing or acting with uniformity, constitute only one thought; this we feel when involuntarily repeated in one maxim or line from the author. After the day's fatigue, and the untroubled head is placed upon the pillow, the thoughts subside and go out; the last one is resigned or lost:—we sink to sleep and silence. The quiet brain, unstimulated by thought, after hours of repose, and sweet forgetfulness, recovers its pristine force, and awakes again like the orient sun to recommence its daily labour.

The infinite degrees of force or movements exercised by the vessels, form the infinite variety of thoughts; and these are the beautiful laws prescribed by the maker, to that grand function, called the brain.

It is a law, that what supplies or excites feelings of dignity, or self-approbation, shall cheer and strengthen the material organ. These feelings are the most pleasant and suitable actions, or movements, to the capacity or power of the vessels.

On the contrary, feelings disagreeable, offensive, abhorred,



impede, sink, and debilitate the whole vascular system. The vessels of the brain are vexed by frequency or repetition of movements until their retentive powers are lost. Then a multitude of irregular vascular actions take place, constituting involuntary troops of thoughts, inconsistent, baseless, unsalutary. A larger quantity of blood is brought into the vessels of the brain, and not (the whole) returned. Hence congestion, or a collection of blood in one part, and pressure from the loaded vessels. Hence headaches, pain in the nape of the neck, sighing, weakness of the heart, and a thousand irritating and discordant sensations, vulgarly and blindly called a complaint of the nerves: an expression from such philosophers to signify inexpression. We have only faintly described the incipient consequences of an incipient brain complaint.

To describe from this stage the further progress of the disease in the vessels, consequently in the mind, would be to describe what is to come; the physician must have nothing to do with the future; remedy the present, and no future can exist. Sufficient to the physician it is to know the present or palpable state of a complaint. The principal causes, in many instances, may be too remote for his faculties to extend. Laws, although strong for the purposes of life, are imbecile when applied to unconnected objects, as what is done without man's previous or future knowledge. Looking after causes unnecessarily, or erecting systems on fleeting causes, aggravates the fever, and removes us from the advantage of cool and salutary repose.

The stimulating power, or growth of thought, on the body, is assuredly accelerated sometimes by a predisposition to disease in the body; and the body being situated in an improper place, and under unfavourable circumstances.

The cause and effect, or body and mind, affect each other. Hence improper living, a close town life, sedentary and restless habits, defect in a secretory organ, an interruption in the process of animalization, great pain, loss of strength, &c., by impeding the harmony of the circulation, frequently derange the vessels destined to perform the office of intellect.

In persons of a very composed disposition, there are slow-shooting thoughts, that need much time to arrive at maturity. In others of a hurried appearance, thoughts are produced in too great a quantity at once:—they put each other out; they are lost in a crowd,

“And ten thousand thoughts that died in thinking,”

said Dryden, in his remarks on the vivacious mind of the witty Duke of Buckingham. Upon great exertion of mind, the brain

or vessels, from detention or pressure of blood, cease to act:— a mental apoplexy takes place. From an intensity of thinking, we frequently stand in vacancy. Lost on the subject that we were talking about, we suddenly forget, and have to recover ourselves. This is an awkward situation for an orator. This situation is different from the one we find ourselves in, when we cannot recollect the name of a person or thing; we have then lost part of a feeling, and only wait for the appropriate sign to specify it.

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### THE MEDICINAL QUALITIES OF MILK.

Milk, as every body knows, consists of three sorts of substances, one of which is for butter, the other for cheese, and the last is serous. While milk is in its natural state, these three are so united that they cannot be distinguished, but upon the least alteration it suffers: the mechanical analysis of these parts is, as I may say, wrought of itself. We shall more particularly speak of this by and by.

The good effects produced by milk arise from the oily and balsamic parts wherewith it abounds: these are they which make this aliment very softening, fit to yield good nourishment, to recover hectic persons; and lastly, to cure those diseases that are caused by sharp and pungent humours.

On the other hand, people in fevers ought not to use it, because the heat of the fever soon curdles it. It is liable to the same inconveniency, when it meets with a stomach that is full of sharp humours; neither is it good for those who are subject to catarrhs or rheums, or have obstructions in some of the parts, because its principles, which are gross enough, and but of little motion, will but increase the cause of these evils, that consist of heavy, viscous, and gross humours.

Every body knows that milk, according to the difference there is between the animals that yield it, contains within it more or less butter, cheese, and serum or whey; and therefore the milk of one animal is often more proper than that of another, to some constitutions, and in some distempers.

Womens milk is often used in physic: it contains a middling quantity of those parts that afford butter and cheese, but much serum. It is of a qualifying nature, and very good for hectic fevers, for pimples, the defluxions of the eyes, and to ease the pains of the gout: moreover, as it was designed to give us our first nourishment, we may from thence conclude, that it agrees with our natural constitution better than any other milk; and that it must also produce the best effects in us, as experience tells us.

Asses milk, as to its consistence and virtues, is much like unto that of a woman's. It is much used in consumption and other disorders of the lungs. Van Helmont says, that the ass, whose milk is to be used, ought to be continually curried; and that probably, because he thought the pores of her skin was thereby the more opened, and so a free passage given to the fuliginous vapours that continually endeavour to get away, and the which, if kept in, would intermix with the milk, and so hinder it from producing such good effects.

Goats milk does not contain as much of the serous part as that of an ass, and suits persons of a moist constitution better than any other. It is a little astringent, because the goat usually brouzes upon the sprigs of oak, lentils, turpentine, and several other astringent plants, which communicate the same nature to its milk.

Sheeps milk contains yet less serum than that of the goat, but a great deal of those parts whereof cheese and butter do consist, which make it fat and thick; and therefore it is but rarely used; and that in such places where all other is scarce, or not to be had. It is observed, that the frequent use of it causes white spots in the skin.

Cows milk, of all other, is the most used for food; it is full of the buttery part, which makes it thick enough, fat, and very proper to nourish and restore the solid parts: it is also more pleasing to the taste, than several other milks of different animals.

Mares milk contains much serum, and but little of the other parts that produce butter and cheese. Camel's-milk is used in some places, and is in consistence much like unto that of a mare's. They have both of them very near the same virtue as asses milk.

The milk of each animal is more or less wholesome, according to the difference of seasons. It is more serous, not so thick, and easier of digestion, in the Spring and Summer, than at any other time; and the reason is, because the animal then lives upon moister and more juicy foods: the same may be also said of the milk of each animal, in respect to their different ages: In short, when the animal is in its prime, its milk is better, riper (as I may say) and easier of digestion, than when it is either too young or too old; for in its first state it is too raw, and too serous, and in the last too dry, not so creamy, and hath fewer spirits.

Milk, and especially that of a cow, is drest several ways, to make it more pleasing to the taste. They let it lay by for some time, then skim off the cream a-top, and whip it, whereby it



becomes very good, light, and easy of digestion : this is called whipt cream, and much used.

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ON LONDON DRAUGHT PORTER AND ALE. BY DR. ROBERTON.

The London ale and porter prepared for pot-houses, are very different in quality, and infinitely more deleterious in their effects, than the same description of liquors made for private families. Although malt, hops and water be employed, to form a very strong fermented liquor, still it is mild to the taste, while the pot-house ale and porter are harsher and stronger than could possibly be made by *any quantity* of malt, hops and water. This harshness, therefore, of the pot-house fermented liquor, must be caused by some other admixture than malt, hops and water. Some have been of opinion, but whether right or wrong I cannot say, that such harshness and stupifying effects, as uniformly result from the profuse use of these liquors, cannot possibly arise from the spirit imparted to them by the malt, but from the admixture of *coccus indicus*, *nux vomica*, and other deleterious substances. That some sort of improper substances are mixed with them, either by their manufacturers or venders, seem too true, for otherwise their makers, or venders, could not furnish a pot of either of them made solely from malt, hops and water, at even double the money they are sold for. Besides, their effects on the constitution are altogether different from what is produced by home-made porter or ale. None who have been accustomed to use the latter, but, on substituting for them the pot-house ale or porter, have almost immediately suffered a derangement of their digestive organs. Another circumstance respecting these pot-house liquors, we find that those in the daily habit of using them freely, are involuntarily led to the use of other substances to counteract their bad effects on the stomach. It is a curious circumstance that such measures are generally adopted without the individuals employing any sort of reasoning on the subject, but only because they feel them of use. The most common of these habits are smoking tobacco, and drinking gin. I have made strict inquiry, at various of the houses where great quantities of ale and porter are sold, and have ascertained, that scarcely any one, who indulges freely in the use of such draught liquors, but, at length, becomes a dram-drinker, or learns to smoke tobacco. Another curious circumstance which I have ascertained, adopted by those who indulge freely in the use of these liquors, is, that those who are subjected to very hard labour, such as coal-heavers, are not so apt to indulge in smoking tobacco and drinking gin as those who remain in a state of inactivity during the time that the porter, or ale, exert their effects on the stomach.



It would thus appear that great exertion of body is somewhat equivalent to the action of the tobacco, or the gin, in obviating their bad effects on the stomach, and consequently it is evident that the free indulgence in their use is inconsistent with the healthy functions of that organ.

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TO MAKE BREAD THAT WILL NEVER BE BITTER.

It frequently happens, in the Summer season, that the brewers, in order to prevent their beer from turning sour, are obliged to use more hops than usual; the consequence is, that the yeast is very bitter, and gives a disagreeable flavour to the bread. To obviate this inconvenience, Mr. Stone has recommended the following method of raising a bushel of flour with only a tea-spoonful of yeast:—

Suppose you want to bake a bushel of flour, put it into your kneading trough, then take about three quarters of a pint of warm water, and one tea-spoonful of yeast. Stir it in till it is thoroughly mixed with the water; then make a hole in the middle of the flour, large enough to contain two gallons of water. Pour in your small quantity; then take a stick, and stir in some of the flour until it is as thick as you would make for a batter pudding; then strew some of the dry flour over it, and go about your usual business for an hour. Then take a quart more of warm water, and pour in; for in one hour you will find that small quantity raised, so that it will break through the dry flour you shook over it; and when you have poured in your quart of warm water, take your stick as before, and stir in some more flour until it is as thick as before; then shake some dry flour over it, and leave it for two hours more, and then you will find it rise and break through the dry flour again; then you may add three quarts or a gallon of water, and stir in the flour, and make it as thick as at first, taking care to cover it with dry flour again, and in about three or four hours more you may mix up your dough, and then cover it up warm; and in four or five hours more you may make it up into loaves, and put it in the oven, and you will have as light a bread as though you had used a pint of yeast.

It does not take above a quarter of an hour more than the usual way of baking, for there is no time lost but that of adding the water three or four times. The author of this method assures us that he constantly bakes in this way. In the morning, about six or seven o'clock, he puts the flour in the trough, and mixes up the spoonful of yeast with the warm water; in an hour's time some more, in two hours more, and about noon makes up the dough, and about six in the evening it is put into the oven, and he has always good bread, never heavy or bitter.

## TO MAKE PAN BREAD.

Put a peck of fine flour, called Hertfordshire Whites, into a wooden bowl that has been previously warmed. Let it stand before the fire for about an hour, then mix up a sufficient quantity of salt and yeast with warm water, and make up the bread at once, instead of setting a small quantity to work in the first instance, as is generally practised. In this way it stands covered with a cloth before the fire for about three hours; it is then made up into loaves, and put in earthenware pans, and set into a quick oven. When well soaked, and nearly done, they are taken out of the pans and set on tins for a few minutes, in order that the crust may become brown; they are then taken out, and wrapped in flannel, and when cold rasped.

Bread made in this manner is much lighter than the common baker's bread, and when cut, puts on the appearance of a honeycomb. It is necessary to remark, that the dough must by no means be near so stiff as usual.

## QUACK MEDICINES.

*Strewe's Lotion for the Hooping Cough.*

Take one drachm of emetic tartar,  
four ounces of boiling water.

Dissolve, and add tincture of Spanish flies, one ounce.

*Dutch Drops.*

Take two ounces of sulphur,  
four ounces oil of turpentine.

If the reader should be disposed to make any of this compound, he must be careful to remove the vessel from the fire the instant that the last particle of sulphur is dissolved, otherwise it will take fire.

*Freeman's Bathing Spirits.*

Take two ounces of soft soap,  
one drachm and a half of camphor,  
rectified spirits of wine, and  
water, of each, half a pint.

To be coloured with a little Daffy's Elixir.

This article has obtained considerable reputation and sale; it is, in fact, an opodeldoc; and whoever buys it at a dearer rate than what the common opodeldoc of the shops is sold for, pays an extra price, without getting a better article.

*Taylor's Remedy for Deafness.*

Take one ounce of oil of almonds,  
one drachm of bruised garlic,  
fifteen grains of alkanet root.

Infuse for two or three days, and strain.

## DISEASES OF THE GUMS.

*The Gums livid.*

The livid colour of the gums generally proceed from the blood stagnating there, which is owing to a fault in the circulation. The method of preventing and correcting this defect, is to rub the gums carefully every morning with a linen cloth a little rough, and to pick them from time to time, but very gently, with the point of a golden or ivory tooth-pick, and not with a quill. When I say you must pick them gently, I would have you in the mean time to make them bleed a little; for this must be done, else the rubbing with the linen cloth will not have force enough to restore the circulation in the part.

But in picking the gums to make them bleed, you must take care not to do it where the teeth are joined to the gum, but only in the middle of its breadth, at some distance from the teeth, without which you would run the risk of making them fall out; but by observing this precaution, you have nothing to fear.

*The Gums like a Hair-cap.*

Some gums are dinted like quilted cushions or hair caps, so that you would say when you look at them, that they were made to put pins into. These sort of gums are very deformed of themselves, but they occasion a second deformity no less remarkable; which is, that they push the lips outwards, as if there was some crust of bread sticking between them and the gums. Another inconveniency which attends this is, that they mar the speech, and hinder the articulation of a certain number of words, such as those, for example, which cannot be pronounced without contracting the lips; insomuch that those words which, in order to their being pronounced, require that the lips be advanced, as *voice*, *velvet*, and others of that kind, are the only words which they can pronounce easily.

This deformity proceeds from too great an abundance of nourishing juices being sent to the gums, whereby their vessels are filled too much; and hence to cure it you must rub them frequently with something astringent and repellent, which is able to give the fibres such an elasticity, as may be capable of driving these juices inwards, and thus put a bar in their way, so to speak. The best astringent you can use is knot-grass.

Take a pugil of this herb, bruise it in the hollow of your hand with your fingers, and rub your gums with it several times a-day, especially in the morning when you get up. But you must continue this some whole months without intermission, and at last the gums will recover their natural size, and you will not be troubled any more with this deformity.



The next deformity we come to talk of, viz. the thinness of the gums, is quite opposite to this which we have just now been considering; for as this is owing to the gums receiving too much nourishment, the one we now proceed to is occasioned by the want of it.

*The Gums too thin.*

When the gums are too thin, it is owing to one of the two following causes, viz. either there is not a sufficient quantity of nourishment sent to them, or their fibres are too rigid to obey the force of the nourishing juices distributed to their substance. These are the two causes, one or other of which you have to struggle with, viz. the want of sufficient nourishment, and the resistance of the vessels. As to the first, it is not to be cured; but the second may be removed by relaxing the gums by emollients, as the roots of mallows, and of marsh-mallows, kept a long time in the mouth and chewed; or you may use the tablets of mallows and marsh-mallows, which are commonly taken for the cough; and as they cure this only by relaxing the vessels, they must consequently be of great service here in making the fibres of the gums sufficiently pliable. But these remedies must be very long continued; for if you imagine that, in order to remove this complaint, it is sufficient to use them now and then, you do but deceive yourself.

*Flaccid Gums.*

One thing which contributes very much to the beauty of the gums, is their being firm and tense. A gum that appears flaccid and soft looks disagreeable, and even ugly, when the mouth is open. The way to make them firm is to wash them every morning, and after every meal, with a little water and verjuice mixed together. The water ought to be chalybeated, and two parts of it mixed with one of verjuice. In order to chalybeate it, you have nothing to do but to extinguish a piece of red-hot iron in it.

*The Gums uneven.*

There are some gums which one would say have their surface all besprinkled with millet-seed, they are so rough and uneven. These are very small pimples, formed under the skin, which, by continuing there a long time, become at last as hard as millet-seeds. They require powerful resolvents to discuss them, and there is scarce any but the root of pellitory that can do it. You must put a little of this between the gums and the lips, and renew it frequently, and let it lie for a little while every time. A little bit of crystal mineral, made use of in the same way, is also very good. As the root of pellitory is very hot, you ought, after using it, to wash your mouth immediately with water and wine.



## THE BRAIN AND THE STOMACH.

Oh, man! vain man! who would dive into the knowledge of that which it was intended should be for ever withheld from you; how manifest is your ignorance made even by those very means which you take to establish your claim to superior wisdom, and discernment. The origin and power of thought—the mind of man—though it has been sought for ages through the medium of the organic structure of the body—though it is the inheritance of every individual, and serves even for the purpose of spinning phantastic theories, and broaching ridiculous speculations, is beyond the reach of human ken; and he who plumes himself upon the brilliancy of his talent cannot discover, even with all his wisdom, from whence that talent springs; if, as a celebrated surgeon said, “it is searched for in the blood and filth of a dissecting room” only! The causes which actuate us, or influence our conduct, cannot even be traced—for while some philosophers would refer the exercise of thought to the brain and nerves, others again as strenuously contend that our actions are influenced by the stomach!! While Gall and Spurzheim, and their disciples, would refer the good or bad qualities of mankind to the existence of certain protuberances or bumps on the head, another no less sapient philosopher insists that our good or bad qualities entirely depend upon our being costive or otherwise!! This may appear too ridiculous to gain credit with some of our readers, and we shall, therefore, quote the words of Dr. Rouviere, President of the Board of Health, in Paris.

“Costiveness,” says the worthy and learned President, “has unquestionably more influence over the fate of families, and even of empires, than most people are inclined to imagine. Cromwell, the Protector of the English Republic, was of a nervous temperament, and had been long subject to it: Cardinal Richelieu, whose bowels were generally confined, notwithstanding the regular use of clysters, was generally morose and frequently relentless. How many events may not be pathologically explained, as arising from suppression of bile, to which Napoleon was subject. I will go further,” says the Doctor, “and fearlessly assert, that frequently the thought of crime, in nervous subjects, originates in some visceral derangement from costiveness; and if some determined villains had experienced the soothing deterging effects of a visceral purgative medicine, they would probably have spared their victims. Could these monuments of a ferocious vengeance—this ardent thirst for crime—exist with the equilibrium of the vital powers, or when the whole

nervous system is not disturbed by disorder of one or more of the viscera of the belly? Doubtless not. Health is one of the principles of wisdom; but unfortunately Health and Wisdom, which may be considered sisters, are not inseparable; for health is frequently neglected. If the bowels, and of course the viscera of the belly, had not been overloaded, would Ravaillae have assassinated Henry the Fourth? or Damiens attempted the life of Louis the Fifteenth? or Louvel have stabbed the Duke de Berri? No! I dare not think it, if a visceral or antibilious purgative had previously operated."

What shall we say to this theory?—probably that it is as good as any one that has preceded it—quite as valuable as Mr. Lawrence's supposition, that an ounce or two more brain, and that placed in the proper part of a man's head, gave him a superiority of intellect without any reference to an immaterial principle—or that the actions of men are the consequence of the peculiar formation and size of the forty bumps of Gall and Spurzheim!

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#### THE MEDICAL QUALITIES OF BUTTER.

There are as many sorts of butter as there are different milks of animals whereof to make it; that of the cow is most in use. You are to make choice of that which is fresh, of a good and pleasant taste, such as has been well made, and if you can, let it be May butter.

Butter is nourishing and pectoral, it opens the body, allays the sharpness of corrosive poisons, is of a dissolving and digesting nature, and good to ease pains, and remove inflammations. They use it in glysters against bleeding, and the dysentery: They rub the gums of children with it, in order to their breeding of teeth the easier.

The too frequent use of butter relaxes and debilitates the stomach, takes away the appetite, provokes retchings to vomit, and heats much, especially if it be old. Butter contains much oil, and a little volatile salt.

It agrees at all times with any age and constitution, though those who have a weak stomach ought to use it moderately, as well as young people of a hot and bilious nature; because it inflames, and in these last easily turns into choler.

Butter is nothing else but the cream of milk, or the fattest and most oily part thereof, which is separated from the serum or whey by churning; the more fat and oily parts the milk contains, the more butter it yields, and therefore you have more from cow's milk than any other.

Every body knows the general estimation in which butter is held, and there is hardly any sauce made without it. The

northern people make more use of it than any; and it is pretended, that it is butter that makes them look so fresh and well.

The newer your butter is, the more pleasant and wholesome you will find it; and the reason is, because its oily and saline principles are then strictly united together: whereas, on the other side, when butter is a little too old, it has undergone an internal fermentation, that hath exalted and disengaged these same principles, which makes it a little sharp, and at the same time oily and unpleasant. Now, in order to prevent this fermentation, and the better to make the butter keep, they salt it, and the salt operates on this occasion, by stopping up the pores of the butter, so that the air cannot enter it so freely, as to communicate to the insensible parts of the matter, an internal motion, which in a short space destroys the first disposition of the parts.

The good effects produced by butter proceeds from its oily and balsamic principles, which are proper to restore the solid parts of the body, by sticking to them; to qualify and embarrass the sharp humours they meet with, and several other the like uses. When they use butter to excess, these same principles so much moisten the fibres of the stomach, that they lose their springing virtue: it also occurs that this part happening to be surcharged with a fat matter that doth ineumber it, makes efforts to be freed from it; it is then that people are inclined to vomit. Lastly, it is observed, that butter used immoderately, heats much; and the reason is, because the oily and fat parts wherewith it abounds are easily inflamed; and therefore this is not good food for bilious constitutions.

Butter-milk is a kind of serum that remains behind, after the butter is made. It is very cooling and moistening, and contains a great deal of cheesy matter.

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#### ON THE CURE OF WHITLOW.

The extremities of the fingers are liable to a very painful inflammation termed whitlow; which almost always terminates in suppuration. It is commonly divided into four species, which perhaps merely differ in degree.

The first species is the mildest, and locates itself at the side or root of the nail. In this species, the inflammation seems to penetrate no deeper than the true skin; and when it terminates in suppuration, the matter is confined immediately below the cuticle. Should the matter find its way beneath the nail, the patient has to endure a great deal of pain from its confinement in so unyielding a part.



In the second species, the inflammation penetrates below the true skin, near the extremity of the finger. It creates much pain, especially in very young people; it eventually suppurates; but it requires a good deal of time before the matter discharges itself.

In the third species, the inflammation is seated within the sheath which covers the flexor tendons. When suppuration takes place in this species, the matter finds great difficulty in passing to the surface of the skin, in consequence of which it is found to pass along the sheaths of tendons, even to the wrist sometimes.

In the fourth species, the membrane covering the bone; and even the bone itself sometimes becomes inflamed. But in this case the inflammation and suppuration are more limited than in the last species.

In both the third and fourth species the pain is extreme; and the inflammation sometimes runs so high as to swell both the hand and arm. Much fever is sometimes excited, and we have known even delirium to attend.

This disease is frequently produced by punctures, or other injuries of the like kind—we have known it several times produced by the sharp fin of a fish, and especially the cat fish.

The different species will require something different in the treatment. It rarely fails to suppurate; and we still more rarely have it in our power to prevent it. Several plans, however, have been proposed for this purpose, some of which are said to have been attended with success—such as holding the finger in very warm water, vinegar, or ley; poultices of the white of an egg and honey; of ley, of brown soap, &c.

As this complaint almost always runs on to suppuration, the sooner this is promoted the better, especially in the two first species. For this purpose we believe there is nothing better than the good old-fashioned bread and milk poultice. This must be repeated every few hours, until the matter forms. When this happens, it should be discharged by opening the abscess as soon as it becomes evident. The wound may be dressed with simple cerate.

In the third and fourth species much more trouble and pain are experienced. Blisters are said to have relieved this deep-seated inflammation; we believe this has happened but rarely. Much patience must be exercised, and suffering endured, before the matter in these cases will find its way to the surface; and sometimes much mischief is done the parts below and around it before this happens. The bone and tendons are killed, and the usefulness of the hand is sometimes destroyed by permitting this complaint to run its course.



On this account it is considered best to cut down to the part, in the direction of the finger, before suppuration has taken place, or as quickly after as possible, and not to wait for the tedious and painful operation of spontaneous opening. By this plan immediate relief is always experienced; for if suppuration has not taken place, a wound which will quickly heal is substituted for an untoward inflammation, which will eventually terminate in it. If matter has formed, it will now be discharged, and the parts will readily heal by very common attention—the wound may be poulticed for two or three days after the incision has been made, and then dressed with simple cerate. If the bone or tendon has sustained injury, the progress of the cure will be very slow. Bone may exfoliate, or tendon slough. The portions of bone should be removed by forceps when loose; and the protruding tendon cut off, as it may appear. If proud flesh shoot up through the external opening, this must be removed by caustic, or the opening enlarged.

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#### CUSTOMS AND HABITS BENEFICIAL TO HEALTH.

A number of rules for the preservation of health have been given by several authors, sometimes dispersed in large publications, and at other times abridged as maxims or aphorisms. There are very few of them, however, calculated for active life, or fit for those who live in society, *as it is now constituted*. We shall select those which seem to me best entitled to the attention of the reader, and shall then give an abstract of the system, by the observance of which, the celebrated Plutarch reached an advanced age with unimpaired mental and personal faculties.

1. Those who are apt to be fat and unwieldy, ought to abstain from liquids as much as possible; for great drinkers are more generally corpulent than great eaters. Even water is nourishing, either from its own qualities, or as promoting digestion, as appears from an interesting experiment.

2. Wearing a wig is an excellent practice for the old, the tender, and the studious. It tends to prevent headaches, and a nervous weakness in the eyes, more especially when the head is shaved daily. Washing the head with warm water and soap, and scraping the skin with a razor, clears off all scurf, and promotes perspiration. The head should afterwards be washed well in cold water, mingled with a few drops of spirit of lavender or Hungary water. This prevents the head from catching cold, and greatly assists in preventing deafness.

3. Two things ought to be particularly avoided, 1st, Giving

up the body entirely to idleness ; and, 2d, Eating again before the last meal is digested.

4. It is of the highest importance to pay particular attention to one's temperament, and constitutional weaknesses. If a person be sanguine or choleric, it gives a tendency to inflammation ; or, if phlegmatic, he is likely to be affected with chronic or nervous disorders. In regard to constitutional weaknesses, every man, in a physical sense, has his weak side ; and diseases generally fix themselves in those parts which are by nature weakened. In some persons, diseases attack the lungs ; in others the stomach, and so on. Wherever such weaknesses exist, every exertion should be made to strengthen the parts subject to them.

5. The preservation of the eyes depends much upon a moderate use of light, and it is a fact confirmed by experience, that too much light is extremely hurtful. Many persons have lost their sight by living in rooms with white walls, or by having their windows so situated as to reflect strongly the light of the sun. The light admitted into rooms may be so proportioned by shutters, Venetian blinds, or curtains, that it may be perfectly sufficient for use, but neither stronger nor weaker than is necessary. It may be proper to add, that being near-sighted, partly proceeds from the injudicious custom of confining children during the first years of their lives, almost constantly within doors. They are thus rendered incapable of forming a focus properly for distant objects. Sailors, from looking at remote objects, become long-sighted, and with difficulty can accommodate the eye to objects nearly situated. Students, watchmakers, and others, who are in the habit of viewing things close to them, on the other hand, become near-sighted ; and those who live much in small chambers are subject to the same defect. A greater number of women than of men, in proportion, are near-sighted, from their being less abroad.

6. An unseasonable change of clothing is often pernicious. A gentleman was suddenly seized with violent, and almost intolerable spasms in his legs, which deprived him at once of all motion, and seemed to affect him universally. Various conjectures were formed about the cause, and various remedies were given to no purpose. At length it occurred, that the spasms might proceed from wearing silk stockings, to which he had not been accustomed ; and the weather at that time was rather cold. On this conjecture, he took off the silk, and put on a pair of worsted stockings ; in consequence of which he recovered.

7. It is an excellent rule, in regard to diet, that every man

should eat and drink a *proper quantity of what best agrees with his constitution*, but never should eat or drink so immoderately as to overload the stomach, or take such refreshments as are difficult to digest.

8. Nothing can be either more ridiculous, or more pernicious, than the custom of eating and drinking things *very hot*. It spoils the teeth, brings on the tooth-ache, disorders the head and eyes, ruins the stomach, and is the source of infinite mischief.

9. A frequent change of posture appears to be favourable to health. One of Lord Bacon's rules was, "never to keep the body in the same posture above half an hour at a time."

10. Any unpleasant piece of intelligence ought always to be communicated when the stomach is empty. The tumultuous agitation of the brain, renders the stomach powerless and paralytic, prevents the natural action of the stomach and intestines, and disturbs the whole circulation of the blood. The effects of such communications, when improperly made, are in the highest degree injurious. About two hours after breakfast is, on that account, the best periods; for in addition to the stomach being then empty, there is time for the mind to recover its tone before bed-time, when the whole frame may be refreshed by sleep.

11. Dr. Beddoes considers the following the very best piece of advice he has given in a very able work he has published on health. In order to render people far less liable to taking cold, and greatly to preserve their eyes at the same time, he recommends them to adopt this rule, "that of sitting a good deal during Winter in a room without fire." But that rule ought to be carried farther. One should never sleep or dress in a room that has a fire in it, either in Summer or Winter, unless in very damp weather. The smoke and dust arising from fuel in a bedroom are highly injurious to health, and warmth can easily be obtained by additional clothing.

Mr. Stewart, the celebrated traveller, strongly recommends more attention to ventilate the rooms, more especially when they are full of company. It is well known what pernicious effects result from drawing up both windows in a crowded coach, in a few hours of a journey; what mischief then may not be expected, when numbers are shut up in small rooms, with an atmosphere vitiated by their breath, and by the effects of fires and candles? The mode of admitting air, as practised at the Royal Infirmary at Edinburgh, which throws it to the roof, would be the best mode of preventing such mischief.

13. Mr. Stewart likewise condemns the practice of going



about all the morning, the men muffled up in spencers and great-coats, and the women with furs and elocks, whilst in the evening, they sit down to dinner imperfectly clothed, and the women half naked; yet in that chilly state they fill the stomach with food, having less vital heat to digest it. Whether a life spent in the foul atmosphere of crowded rooms, or the system of *chilly repletion* (loading the stomach when the body is cold) does the most mischief, it is difficult to determine.

14. Celsus has strongly recommended it to the healthy, to diversify their mode of life;—to be sometimes in the city, and sometimes in the country: sometimes at rest, but at other times to take frequent exercise; sometimes to use the warm bath, and sometimes the cold; to anoint sometimes, and at other times to neglect it; to avoid no kind of food that may be in common use; sometimes to eat in company, and at other times to retire from it; in short, by a varied life, to be always prepared for any circumstances that may happen.

15. Celsus has likewise cautioned his readers not to destroy, in the gay days of pleasure, by excesses of any kind, that vigour of constitution which is the best support under infirmities; the loss of which though unavoidable, yet by care and attention, may for a time be averted.

#### ON THE EXPOSURE AND HARDENING OF CHILDREN.

In our variable climate we oftentimes have every variety of the year in any one given portion of it; thus in the middle of our Winter we have the mutability of April, or the mildness of May. If the latter be the case, or the temperature even lower, it would be folly to deny the enjoyments and advantages of fresh air, (the body being properly guarded,) because our almanack declares the month to be January. The rule then for taking children into the open air, either in Winter or in Summer, must be founded in a great measure upon our sensation, and the thermometer; for in the one, it may indicate too high a temperature; and in the other, one too low for the purposes of exposure or of exercise.

But why should it be thought impossible to have fresh air in Winter, unless the child be exposed to the inclemency of an outdoor atmosphere? At this season of the year, is not the air in a well constructed house of equal purity with that abroad? Cannot the temperature of a room be so regulated as to do away all risk in the enjoyment of the air? And is that air not sufficiently pure and elastic for all the purposes of health? If these questions be answered in the affirmative, and we are sure every ra-

tional person will answer them so, we are in possession of a safe and certain means to give the child fresh air, without the serious risk of exposure.

Let us, however, admit to the sticklers for exposure, there might be an advantage in "giving the child fresh air in cold weather;" agreeably to their opinions of fresh air, will it not be conceded, on the other hand, that it will require much care? Will it not require, that the child's body, or other parts, should not be exposed, and not only not exposed, but carefully and sufficiently protected? Will it not also be admitted, that if attention be not paid to these circumstances, much risk, if not positive danger, may be incurred? If these points be yielded, we will ask if one mother in a hundred is so fortunate as to have a person to take the child "abroad," in which this essential confidence should be placed. We are sure that many, perhaps very many, will say, Yes! because they believe so: yet any one of observation, who travel our city, may contradict them; for they may constantly witness the limbs of the little sufferers exposed until purple with cold, while the nurse is attentive alone to her own pleasures or amusements, by holding a long gossiping colloquy, with a dear friend, whom she has not seen for the "age of a week," or is examining in detail all the attractions of a print-shop, or feasting her imagination with the delightful articles of a pastry-cook's window. After this, the child is brought home, benumbed with cold; the mother receives it with rapture, and because her darling has been breathing an air but little above Zero for several long hours, anticipates future health for her child, at the moment perhaps it has received its death-wound.

It may perhaps be urged in opposition to these opinions, that the children of poor people are constantly "exposed," and have, in consequence, the best possible health. But upon this point, let the whole truth be told: we admit that "the children of poor people are exposed;" and also agree that the number which remain of a family may even have "the best possible health;" but we would ask, at what expense has this "best possible health" been procured? Look at our bills of mortality, and see how large a proportion of the deaths is made up of young children; and then examine the returns at the Health Office, and you will find how many of these "exposed" little sufferers die by the experiment, or rather from the necessity of "exposure."

Many children, and especially those in large manufacturing towns; those of poor people, in crowded situations; and of those who have but a scanty supply of provisions, are born with

strong predisposition to diseases. In severe weather they are exposed to the debilitating effects of cold, besides the evils just mentioned, by which the latent dispositions are converted into active diseases; and the victims made to swell the bills of mortality.

Cold, when combined with poverty, exerts an almost irresistible influence upon the human constitution; they destroy, and spare not, the poor helpless infant exposed to their violence; they desolate without stint or measure; and have more victims than any one disease in the whole catalogue of human maladies.

Adam Smith confirms this, when he says, "it is not uncommon, I have frequently been informed, in the Highlands of Scotland, for a mother who has borne twenty children, not to have two alive. Several officers of great experience have told me, that so far from recruiting their regiment, they have never been able to supply it with drums and fifes, from all the soldiers' children that were born in it."

In thus attempting to point out the impropriety and danger of ill regulated or indiscriminate "exposure," let us not be supposed to favour the opposite extreme—than this, nothing can be farther from our views. We as earnestly deprecate an overweening caution, as we condemn unnecessary exposure: the mean is the golden rule; and the degree of temperature, regulated by the force of constitution. It would be no less preposterous than injurious to subject every child to an equal degree of exposure. The strength of constitution varies in almost every individual—cold air is unquestionably a cold bath, with certain modifications; now, no one would declare the cold bath, and especially one of the same temperature, would be proper to every constitution, or at all times to the same constitution.

We agree that children may be brought up too tenderly; and we declare this mode to be as wrong as the other—because, like it, it has its victims. Extremes, therefore, are never right. Upon a subject like the present, it would be impossible to lay down precise rules for every variety of case—we therefore can only give general directions upon this subject; the deviations which particular instances may require, must be left very much to the good sense and discretion of the parent. We must remark, however, 1st, that the lungs of young children cannot bear as low a temperature with safety, as children of more advanced age; nor those of even more advanced age, so low a temperature as an adult; 2d, that the injury which young children receive when exposed to a very low temperature, is through the medium of the lungs, and is not of a direct kind; for it generally



requires the sudden application of warmth, to call into action the injurious effects of the previous cold—therefore this important caution suggests itself, in the management of children who have been unavoidably or unnecessarily exposed to a low temperature, viz. not to bring them too suddenly into an atmosphere of high temperature; 3d, as it is the lungs which especially suffer from a low temperature, no precaution of covering the body can protect them with certainty against the consequences of such exposure; yet, if the body be well protected, it will very much diminish the chance of injury to the lungs, by tending to maintain and equalize excitement; 4th, but if both lungs and body be exposed, the system has then to contend against the depression consequent upon the exposure of a large surface of skin, as well as that of the lungs; therefore the risk of injury is increased from this circumstance.

We once urged the above and similar objections against indiscriminate “exposure,” to a lady who was a great stickler for it; when we were told with an air of triumph, that the plan she had adopted in sending out her children would at once overcome all our objections to the practice. The plan, which shall be told in her own words, was as follows: “When the weather is cold, and that is the time you principally object to a child’s being carried out, I take care not only to clothe the child very well, but also, before the nurse sets out, to cover its little head completely with a good warm cloak, so that the cold air cannot get to its mouth; and it will sleep when it is thus covered up, as soundly as if it were in its cradle in the nursery. So you see that no possible injury can happen to the child, since it is not made to breathe the cold air, which you appear so much to dread.”

[To be continued.]

#### ON THE USE OF THE CUPPING GLASS IN VARIOUS DISEASES.

The plan of abstracting blood by means of the cupping glass and scarificator has many advantages in practice, over the uncertain application of leeches, where particular effects are required. If, as in the case in many disorders, our object be to induce syncope, to relieve the congestive state of the blood, we take it *pleno rivo*. In these cases also, we shall find that the cupping glasses, emptying the capillaries in a shorter time, will sooner and more effectually relieve the patient than the tardy flow of blood from a whole host of leeches. We shall content ourselves with endeavouring to point out to our readers, a few of those disorders in which he will find cupping most beneficial.

*Apoplexy.*

Previous to an attack of apoplexy, the patient feels more or less those premonitory symptoms which have been noticed by very early writers on medical practice, and which, if properly attended to, might be the means of averting the dreadful consequences attendant upon their neglect. These symptoms are a dull heavy pain in the head, giddiness on stooping, throbbing of the temporal arteries, ringing in the ears, loss of memory, excessive drowsiness, &c. If any of these symptoms occur in a patient who has the apoplectic form, viz. a large head, short thick neck, florid complexion, broad shoulders, short stature, with an inclination to corpulency, and also to those advanced in years, we should lose no time in recommending abstraction of blood as the only means of relief: an occasional application of the cupping glass in the more moderate cases will be sufficient, but when the patient has already had one attack, or if he be of a full plethoric habit, blood at the same time must be taken from the arm.

By having early recourse to these means, the attack may be kept off for a considerable period. During the state of coma, the cupping glasses and scarificator are to be applied to the temples, the nape of the neck, or between the shoulders; upwards of 100 ounces of blood have been taken in the course of four days by this means.

*Palsy.*

The symptoms denoting the approach of palsy are, numbness of the side, or extremity, which is about to be the seat of the disorder; pricking, and sometimes heat of the skin; sense of creeping; impaired judgment, and others enumerated under apoplexy; palsy is often the precursor of genuine apoplexy, and in its treatment the practitioner ought particularly to keep this in view. Bleeding from the arm is scarcely admissible, unless the patient is of a plethoric habit, and decided symptoms of compression of the brain appear. From the seasonable application of the cupping glasses we can alone expect to derive advantage; and blood to the amount of 16 or 20 ounces must be taken either from the temples or nape of the neck.

*Hysteria and Epilepsy.*

Blood-letting is seldom practised in hysteria, except in young and plethoric subjects, in which cases good has arisen from its use; cupping will be found more advisable, especially where it has been of long standing. In epilepsy, the most effectual relief is obtained by the application of the cupping glass to the nape of the neck or back.

*Mania.*

In some of the milder stages of mania, or aberration of the mind, periodical cupping is of considerable advantage: many lunatics appear conscious of the benefit to be derived from it, as it is not an uncommon thing for them to express a wish to have that operation repeated. Where maniacal symptoms arise in the progress of other complaints also, good will be derived by the abstraction of blood by cupping.

*Fevers in General.*

In the early stages of some fevers, cupping might be resorted to with advantage, rather than the indiscriminate use of leeches or the lancet; by them the strength of the patient is frequently reduced to a greater degree than the benefit obtained will warrant, which is not the case by this operation. The debility occasioned by leeches is excessive, and should by no means be persisted in; the strength of the patient, too, must be sparingly reduced by the hand of the surgeon, when it is considered how much the vital powers fail even in a short attack of fever.

*Inflammations.*

The propriety of blood letting in cases of inflammation has been generally admitted as well as practised; but cupping, though a powerful auxiliary, has been, comparatively speaking, altogether omitted. To this neglect, the frequent relapses, and sometimes fatal termination of diseases, may, without exceeding the limits of probability, be justly ascribed.

*Inflammation of the Brain.*

Very active depletion is required in this disease. The cupping glass must not be neglected, for on local depletion the success of the issue will often depend. In headaches, arising from a determination of blood to the head, known by the throbbing of the temporal arteries, and suffusion of the eyes; relief will be obtained by the loss of a few ounces of blood from the nape of the neck, by cupping.

*Inflammation of the Eyes.*

Local bleeding will frequently be found to relieve the turgescence of the vessels of the eye; and indeed cupping is now generally preferred by oculists to the application of leeches: the external inflammation they are apt to induce is sometimes very considerable; and cases have recurred where erysipelas succeeded their use, and especially one of a gentleman who died in consequence. The parts where the glass may be applied are, the temples, nape of the neck, or between the shoulders.



*Pulmonary Consumption—Spitting of Blood, &c.*

Under this section may be included all those diseases, the primary origin of which is in the respiratory organs, in which the occasional abstraction of blood by cupping, to about 10 ounces, will be found of infinite service, and in most cases will alleviate considerably the distressing symptoms of oppression and dyspnoea.

*Inflammation of the Liver.*

In no disease, perhaps, are the advantages of local abstraction of blood more conspicuous than in those of this organ, provided it be employed before disorganization has taken place. More active employment of it in hepatic affections of the East would undoubtedly be the means of checking this disease, which is so unfortunately destructive to the constitutions of those who reside there.

*Gout and Rheumatism.*

In the inflammatory stages, cupping is frequently applied, and more particularly advised where congestion of the vessels of the head or internal organs is indicated, and by some practitioners is preferred to the lancet.

*Cholera Morbus.*

This terrible malady, which has so long and so severely visited our Eastern territories, attacking equally all classes of society, has of late aroused the attention of our medical writers, and awakened a spirit of inquiry, which it is to be hoped will eventually prove of service to those whose destination it is to be exposed to its dangers. For it, depletion has been recommended, and practised with the greatest success, though it is to be regretted that, with such facts before their eyes, there should still be found practitioners who, either from prejudice or other causes as much to be deprecated, are loath to give up the contrary opinion, which, in theory is bad, and in practice has produced nothing but disappointment and failure. "I have thought it right (says Mr. Annesley) to discuss thus fully the advantages of bleeding, because I know there is among many of the profession in India a very great prejudice against it\*." In this scientific work, the author strongly recommends bleeding by leeches to a very great extent, and refers to them constantly, as if they were at all times to be procured in an inexhaustible supply, and always at hand in every emergency. This, however, cannot be expected to be the case in some of the severe seasons, when cholera is more generally prevalent. Our astonishment, therefore, must be great when we find that Mr. Annesley has not once in

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\* Diseases of India, by J. Annesley, Esq. p. 175.

his work mentioned or hinted at the advantage to be derived from the use of the cupping apparatus. Surely this is only to be accounted for by supposing he had not seen it in frequent operation; and this neglect, therefore, can only be ascribed to what I have already submitted as an evil to my readers—the little attention hitherto paid to this operation as a necessary part of medical knowledge.

Cupping, it is obvious, must be highly advantageous, for reasons previously stated, as well as one more powerful, viz. *economy*. I will suggest it, therefore, as the most effectual remedy not only for this disease, but others incidental to tropical climates; and it would be well, on this ground, if the ruling authorities were to give strict orders for due attention to be paid to an operation so generally neglected, by which many valuable lives would, I am convinced, be spared.

There are many other diseases in which cupping is applicable, but these I need not enumerate, as they will readily occur to the practitioner. I would however observe, that the curative process of the cupping glass has not hitherto received that attention which it deserves; and it might more generally be used for other purposes beside that of obtaining blood, by what is generally known by the term, Dry Cupping.

Dr. Barry has lately drawn the attention of the profession to this subject, and employed the glass successfully in arresting the absorption of poison applied to the surface of the body. His experiments indeed are so conclusive, that we may almost hope we have at length procured a remedy for that most distressing complaint

#### *Hydrophobia.*

This suggestion ought to receive more particular attention at this season of the year, when accidents from rabid animals are the most to be apprehended, especially as all other remedies yet prescribed have failed. On the early application of the glass will depend much the success of the operation; for after the virus shall have been admitted into the system little good can be expected, though in one of Dr. B's experiments the glass was not applied till the expiration of three quarters of an hour after the poison was introduced, and the life of the animal saved may encourage us to try the remedy. The glass must be kept applied for six or eight hours at the least, in which the surgeon can be assisted by any intelligent humane person, if the patent cupping glass is used, as it is very readily applied, and that without much dexterity. The part may occasionally be washed with a little cold water, and the glass quickly applied.

The following particulars from the *Medico Chirurgical Review* for April, are not only curious but highly instructive:—

“The employment of natural suction, for the extraction of poison from wounds, is a practice of very ancient date, as is well known. Dr. Barry has lately revived this practice in Paris, making use of cupping glasses instead of the living mouth. M. Laennec has presented a report to the Royal Academy of Medicine on Dr. Barry’s experiments, and the results appear to be very important as well as curious. We shall glance at some of these experiments. In the first place, powdered strychnine was applied to a wound, and then a cupping glass was exhausted over it. The effects of the poison were prevented. If taken off, the poison would begin to work, and when re-applied, these consequences would be again suspended. Similar experiments were made with white arsenic, the upas tiente, and prussic acid. Eight grains of arsenic were introduced into a wound made in the thigh of a dog. Three quarters of an hour afterwards the glass was applied, and kept exhausted for four hours. The dog experienced no inconvenience. Another dog was similarly treated, but no glass applied, and the animal died in fifteen hours. Six drops of prussic acid were infused into a small wound in the thigh of a rabbit. The glass was immediately applied, and kept so for twelve minutes. The animal felt no bad effects. The glass was removed, and quickly the rabbit was seized with convulsions and was supposed to be dying. The re-application of the glass was soon followed by a restoration of the pristine state of the animal. After twelve minutes the glass was again removed, and the convulsions and other bad symptoms soon re-appeared and required the third application of the exhauster. The rabbit could not dispense with the glass till after half an hour from the introduction of the poison. The same process was instituted on another rabbit, but without the exhauster. The animal died in two minutes. Experiments of a similar kind were made with the upas tiente, and with analogous results. It appears evident that the cupping glass prevents the poison from finding its way into the system, and that thus the process may be of considerable importance in the healing art.

It has been proved lately in France, that the bites of vipers, both on man and inferior animals, were rendered entirely harmless by the application of cupping glasses.

The cupping glass when exhausted over an indolent ulcer is known to procure healthy granulations, and is recommended by some to promote resolution in deep-seated inflammation, on the same principle as the application of blisters. I have seen it useful, I think, in an obstinate case of suppressed menstruation. There is still a wide field open for inquiry; and the new theory advanced by Dr. Barry and other French physiologists on ab-



sorption, will, it is to be hoped, make us acquainted with many processes in the animal economy hitherto unnoticed.

OF THE INFLUENCE OF IMAGINATION UPON THE FŒTUS IN UTERO..

There is no delusion of the mind during pregnancy, that renders the woman so truly wretched, as the belief that the imagination can exert an injurious control over the child. Should she have been disagreeably surprised, or greatly alarmed, or above all, terrified by some frightful or disgusting object, she at once becomes possessed with the apprehension, that her unborn babe will receive an injury or blemish, similar to that which had excited her aversion, or caused her alarm. She dwells upon this idea with pertinacity, until she becomes almost a victim to its influence. Her nightly "imaginings" are those of horror; and the day affords no relief, as her mind teems with prejudices, and they are in favour of the influence she so earnestly deprecates—and nothing but the delivery of an unblemished child can soothe her agitated feelings, or remove her long cherished fears.

The origin of this belief, it is true, is coeval with our earliest records; but its antiquity should not entitle it to the least force, when this argument alone is employed; for were this to be a rule, there would be no end to error, however powerfully combated by reason, or opposed by facts. No one circumstance connected with the history of this prejudice, has so effectually contributed to its permanency, as the successful stratagem of Jacob, to secure to himself all the "ring-streaked" cattle from the flocks of Laban, by placing before them "rods of poplar, and of hazel and chesnut tree," on which was piled white streaks, when they were about to drink, as his reward for his faithful services to his selfish father-in-law. Indeed, this may with much propriety be considered as the origin of this distressing illusion; and it certainly is one on which the supporters of this opinion chiefly rely, when strongly opposed by facts and reasoning.

We are willing to give every credit to the fact of Laban's cattle becoming "streaked" by Jacob's scheme that it deserves, since we may unreservedly believe in the fact in that particular instance, without committing ourselves by so doing, in this influence being perpetuated in the human species. In the case under consideration, we are of the opinion of many enlightened divines, that there was God's indirect interposition in favour of Jacob, against the crafty Laban, since, as such means would not in general produce similar effects, it is more reason-

able to suppose that he was directed (in the plan he adopted) by some divine intimation, and rendered successful, if not by a direct miracle, yet by the Lord's giving a new and uncommon bias to the tendency of natural causes. "Scott's Family Bible, Genesis, chap. xxx." And this supposition is rendered still more probable, by what follows in verses 10, 11, 12, and 13, of chap. xxxi.

If then we have rendered it more than probable that the hand of the Lord was in the effect produced by Jacob's motley rods, we think that much of the feeling upon this subject should be abated, and the mind be permitted to listen to the suggestions of reason, and yield to the force of facts.

To remove these apprehensions altogether from the minds of pregnant women, is perhaps impossible ; so fixed are their prejudices, and so cherished are their impressions upon this subject, that it is no longer a matter of reason—it is one almost exclusively of feeling and fancy. Yet we flatter ourselves the force of this error may be diminished, though not entirely subdued, by arguments, that are based upon the solid foundations of anatomy and physiology, and which deserve to be well weighed before they are rejected.

In the infancy of medical science, the opinion that the imagination exerted an influence, was implicitly received ; and Hippocrates himself assisted in the propagation of the delusion. It became not only a popular, but a fashionable belief ; and kings and nobles acted upon the principle, with the hope of realizing its efficacy ; and even when certainly abused by their wives, nevertheless credited its influence. It was made use of (honestly we doubt not, at the time) in some instances for the protection of the supposed innocent, against the severity of the law, or the indignation of an injured husband. Thus Hippocrates saved by his testimony a noble woman who had been charged, because she had borne a coloured child (she and her husband both being white), by alleging that the darkness of its colour was the effect of a picture of an Ethiopian, which hung in her chamber, and which was often the object of her contemplation. And Soranus declares that the tyrant Dionysius, who was deformed and ill favoured himself, employed the aid of beautiful pictures, in the hope that his wife might have comely issue.

Galen was also of opinion that a picture was sufficient to give a corresponding appearance to the fœtus in utero. And Cælius Rhodius informs us, that Fabius Quintilian saved a woman from suspicion after she had brought forth a little negro, by his assertion, that the circumstance arose from her taking great pleasure

in viewing the picture of one in her chamber. And it was from the prevalence of this popular belief, that Heliodorus formed the first, and we may add, one of the most beautiful Novels in the world. It is called the “*Loves of Theagenes and Characlea* ;” the latter being born white, from Ethiopian parents ; but the Queen her mother had often viewed, during her pregnancy, the picture of Andromeda, which was painted with a white face ; the sages attributed the white colour of the child to the force of the mother’s imagination.

Such notions upon this subject have existed from the earliest history of the world, and such do they continue to the present moment, with this exception ; if now such cases as those related of Hippocrates and Quintilian were to be presented for judicial decision, few juries would have sufficient hardihood to attribute the effect to the force of imagination ; yet some not less marvellous and extraordinary stories gain full belief, at the present day, though not entitled to credit in any superior degree.

The different manners in which the imagination is supposed by its advocates to affect the foetus is—1st, by imposing upon its skin certain resemblances to things on which the fancy has been deeply concerned or employed ; such as fruit, wine, insects, or animals ; 2d, by the production of additional parts, as two heads, four legs, additional fingers, toes, &c. &c. ; 3d, by the destruction of certain parts ; as a leg, or arm, or both ; the want of a head or hand, or foot, or lip, &c. &c.

These three effects, supposed to be produced by the power of the imagination, are the only instances, or nearly so, of its influence upon the foetus. We shall therefore say a few words upon these heads, respectively ; but first we shall consider the nature of the connexion which subsists between the mother and child, that their objections to the power of the imagination may be the better understood.

Anatomy has most satisfactorily proved, that the connexion between the mother and child is altogether indirect, and exists only through the medium of circulation. It has also shown, that there is no nervous communication between them ; or, in other words, that there has never been detected any nervous filament of the mother, entering any portion of the foetal system. From this wise and all important arrangement, it will follow, that the foetus is not subject to the various and fluctuating condition of the sanguiferous, or to the never-ending changes of the nervous system of the mother ; since no direct communication exists between her blood-vessels, or nerves, and those of the foetus, to impose upon it any alteration that may take place in



her system, or to render the child liable through the medium of nervous connexion, to the affections of the mother.

If this arrangement be such as has just been represented, and of which there cannot be a reasonable doubt, we may ask, how any condition of the arterial, or any affection of the brain and nervous system of the mother, can have an influence, or exert a control, over both of a foetus, which has no direct connexion with the one, nor even an indirect one with the other? Were this arrangement between mother and child more closely studied, better understood, or more justly appreciated, we should hear much less of the influence of the imagination of the mother upon the body of her infant; and one of the most agonizing conditions of the human mind would be removed from the list of evils attendant upon pregnancy.

No one, as far as we know, has determined at what period of pregnancy the influence of the imagination ceases; or, in other words at which it cannot be exerted—every period of uterogestation, agreeably to the histories given to prove the powers of imagination, seems alike liable to its control. Now, this admission proves in many instances too much; for it not only gives to the fancy a generative power, but also a destructive one. Thus in some cases, an arm, a leg, a thumb, or toe, is added to the child; while, in others, there is a loss of one of these parts. Who has ever detected the severed member, or part, escaping from the womb of the mother at the birth of the mutilated child? Must this not have been observed, did the histories of such cases give a faithful relation of the influence of the imagination?

Besides, it gives to this power another very extraordinary capacity; namely, the stopping of the blood after the part has been separated from the body, or limb; for the child does not die of hæmorrhage while in utero, but is absolutely born alive! We once knew an instance where there was but the stump of an arm, which at the time of birth was perfectly healed, or rather discovered no evidence that it had ever been a wound; yet, the mother, in this case, declared herself to have been frightened, at the sixth month of her pregnancy, by an impudent old beggar, who was well known in this city. But what became of the lopped off arm?—what arrested the bleeding? We certainly did not discover it; nor had we any evidence that there had been a bleeding; for the child was born healthy and vigorous, and no mixture of blood was discovered with the waters. Now, we must ask again, what became of the east off arm? or what arrested the bleeding?

Again, where resemblances have been supposed to be detected,

between the child and some animal by which the mother had been frightened; and this sometimes even at a pretty advanced period of pregnancy, the power of the imagination must be very wonderful indeed, since, in order that the supposed effect should be produced, it must have new modelled the head, though the bones of the cranium must have been pretty solid. Thus, Bartholine informs us that in the year 1638, a woman was delivered of a child in every way well shaped, except the head, which resembled that of a cat; this deformity was owing to a severe fright which the mother had received, by a cat getting into her bed. In this famous case, if the point of resemblance to the animal by which the mother may have been frightened be admitted, it must also be acknowledged, that the head of the child must have been remodelled by some plastic power of the imagination! a circumstance not to be acknowledged by reason, nor to be proved by fact—therefore this case, like many others we could cite, proves too much.

We will not deny that occasional instances occur of the perpetuation of supernumerary parts, or even marks, in certain families; such as an additional thumb, or toe, or finger, or a mole; but these cases are not the result of any exercise of the imagination—they are the mere continuance of peculiarity, such as of warts or blotches, the instances of which are numerous—but here the fancy has no agency in their production.

We have been attentive to this subject, as already remarked, for many years; and commenced our observations under the full persuasion of the efficacy of imaginative influence, and abandoned it only because it could not be sustained by facts; and at this moment, we are entirely convinced that the fancy exerts not the slightest influence over the form of the fœtus.

We may mention here with much propriety, and we wish we may add with much effect, the opinion of the late celebrated Dr. William Hunter upon this subject. Dr. Hunter used to declare in his lectures, that he experimented in a lying-in hospital upon two thousand cases of labour, to ascertain this point. His method was as follows:—So soon as a woman was delivered, he inquired of her whether she had been disappointed in any object of her longing, and what that substance was? if her answer were yes; whether she had been surprised by any circumstance which had given her any unusual shock, and what that consisted of; whether she had been alarmed by any object of an unsightly kind, and what that was. Then, after making a note of each of the declarations of the women, either in the affirmative or negative, he carefully examined the child; and he assured his class, that he never, in a single instance of the two

thousand, met with a coincidence. He met with blemishes when no cause was acknowledged, and found none when it had been insisted on.

It must, however, be confessed, that the Doctor owned he met with one case in his private practice that puzzled him; and he told his pupils, he would merely relate the facts, and leave them to draw their own conclusions. A lady had been married several years without having proved pregnant; but at last, she had the satisfaction to announce to her husband that she was in this situation. The joy of the husband was excessive, nay unbounded; and he immediately set about to qualify himself for the all important duty of educating his long-wished-for offspring. He read much, and had studied Martinus Scriblerus with great patience and supposed advantage, and had become a complete convert to the supposed influence of the imagination upon the foetus in utero. He accordingly acted upon this principle. He guarded his wife, so far as in him lay, against any contingency that might affect the child she carried. He therefore gratified all her longings most scrupulously; he never permitted her to exercise but in a close carriage; and carefully removed from her view all unsightly objects.

The term of gestation was at length completed; and the lady was safely delivered, by the skill of Dr. Hunter, of a living and healthy child; it had however one imperfection—it was a confirmed Mulatto. On this discovery being made, the father was at first inexorable, and was only appeased by his dutiful and sympathizing wife, calling to his recollection the huge, ugly negro, that stood near the carriage door the last time she took an airing, and at whom she was severely frightened!

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#### COSTIVENESS ATTENDANT ON PILES.

Costiveness not only aggravates the distention of the hæmorrhoidal veins, and the effusion in the surrounding cellular membrane, constituting piles, but is generally the principal cause of the complaint. One dose of an active purgative, by unloading the lower intestines, generally affords considerable relief; but a repetition of it in the course of a few days frequently increases the irritation. After unloading the bowels, a re-accumulation of fæces in the colon and rectum should be prevented by the regular use of a mild dose of an active aperient, so as to produce one or two copious soft motions daily, in conjunction with a remedy, capable of allaying irritation in the rectum.

The following composition we have known not only to obviate costiveness without exciting griping pains in the intestines,



but effectually to allay irritation and inflammatory excitement in the rectum:—

Take of alkaline extract of jalap one drachm,  
purified pitch (Stockholm) half a drachm.

Mix, and divide into twenty-four pills; two or three to be taken once or twice a-day.

A lavement of cold thin gruel, or cold water, once a-day, has been lately much extolled by some French writers, as a remedy for piles and irritative affections of the rectum and colon; and we have heard some practitioners in this country, who have given them a trial in those complaints, speak very favourably of their effects in allaying irritation, and especially when attended with a disposition to prolapsus, and in constringing relaxed hæmorrhoidal vessels. The decoction of oak bark, injected into the rectum *cold*, which is much recommended by some practitioners in cases of piles, and prolapsus ani, we have always found to excite considerable colicky pains; and when the bowels are irritable, cold water injected into the colon, in case of piles, or inflammatory excitement in the rectum, has brought on inflammatory colic. In a plethoric person, of an apoplectic make, cold water, or cold thin gruel, injected into the rectum, might produce such an afflux of blood to the brain as to occasion apoplexy. The lower portion of the intestines are more susceptible of the action of cold than any part of the body, and in gouty and other invalids of tender bowels, even cold water or cold air applied externally, will often excite colicky pains, or painful purging.

If the parts have sustained much mischief from repeated attacks of inflammatory piles, the following ointment may be applied externally, and by means of a bougie or candle, introduced into the rectum every night:—

Take of the hydro-sublimed calomel one drachm,  
spermaceti ointment one ounce,  
flowers of zinc half a drachm.

Mix well together.

When the irritation extends up the rectum, the *soft* rectum bougie, smeared with this ointment, applied for a few minutes every night and morning, when reclining in a bed, generally removes the disease in a few days, and will effectually prevent structural mischief.

If the parts be in a state of great rigidity, or disposed to stricture or structural mischief, two drachms of the ointment of belladonna may be substituted for the flowers of zinc. If the external skin be excoriated or affected with erysipelatous inflam-

mation, which is generally attended with a distressing itching and an exudation of serum, it may be washed twice a-day with the following:—

Take of sulphate of copper five grains,  
elder-flower water four ounces.

Mix.

Or the following ointment may be rubbed over the affected parts every night and morning:—

Take of citrine ointment six drachms,  
Barbadoes tar half a drachm.

Mix.

All purgatives containing aloes, as the compound colocynth pill, the cathartic extract (compound extract of colocynth), &c., are improper in cases of piles and morbid irritation of the rectum: Such is the peculiar stimulating effects of aloetic purges on the rectum, that in general, piles, and most other schirrous diseases of the rectum, may be traced to their free use. All the advertised purgative and antibilious pills we have examined contain aloes; and to their regular use we have known invalids, who have fallen cruel sacrifices to the most distressing diseases to which human nature is subject, viz. the schirro-contracted rectum, attribute their affliction.

It is common for physicians unacquainted with surgery to pronounce all irritative affections of the rectum, unattended with external piles, *internal* piles, and to subject the patients to their routine treatment in such cases. Irritation within the rectum is an attendant on a variety of diseases, many of which advance to an incurable stage, during the time the patient continues under such management. In a late Treatise on Strictures of the Urethra and Rectum, we have noticed the diseases which are often mistaken for internal piles.

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#### ON FERMENTED LIQUORS. By Dr. PARIS.

Volumes have been written to prove that spirit, in every form, is not only unnecessary to those who are in health, but that it has been the prolific source of the most painful and fatal diseases to which man is subject; in short, that Epimetheus himself did not, by opening the box of Pandora, commit a greater act of hostility against our nature than the discoverer of fermented liquors. Every apartment, it is said, devoted to the circulation of the glass may be regarded as a temple set apart for the performance of human sacrifices; and that they ought to be fitted up, like the ancient temples of Egypt, in a manner

to shew the real atrocity of the superstition that is carried on within their walls. This is mere rant and nonsense ; a striking specimen of the fallacy of reasoning against the *use* of a custom from its *abuse*. There exists no evidence to prove that a temperate use of good wine, when taken at seasonable hours, has ever proved injurious to healthy adults. In youth, and still more in infancy\*, the stimulus which it imparts to the stomach is undoubtedly injurious ; but there are exceptions even to this general rule. The occasional use of *diluted*† wine has improved the health of a child, by imparting vigour to a torpid stomach : we ought, however, to consider it rather as a medicine than as a luxury.

### *Effects of Wine on the Invalid.*

Without entering farther into the discussion of a question which has called so many opponents into the field, it may be observed, that whatever opinion we may have formed as to the evils or advantages consequent upon the invention of wine, we are not called upon, as physicians, to defend it ; our object is to direct remedies for the cure of those diseases which assail man as we find him in the habits of society, not as he might have been had he continued to derive his nourishment from the roots of the earth, and his drink from its springs. As these habits, says Dr. W. Philip, are such, that more or less alcohol is necessary to support the usual vigour of the greater number of people, even in health, nothing could be more injudicious than wholly to deprive them of it when they are already weakened by disease, unless it could be shewn that even a moderate use of it essentially adds to their disease, which, in dyspeptics, is by no means the case. My own experience coincides with that of Dr. W. Philip. In cases where the vinous stimulant has been withdrawn, I have generally witnessed an aggravation of the dyspeptic symptoms, accompanied with severe depression of spirit : like Sindbad, in the Arabian tale, the patient has borne a weight on his shoulders which he has in vain at-

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\* An ingenious surgeon tried the following experiment :—He gave to two of his children, for a week alternately, after dinner, to the one a full glass of Sherry, and to the other a large China orange. The effects that followed were sufficient to prove the injurious tendency of vinous liquor. In the one the pulse was quickened, the heat increased, the urine became high coloured, and the stools destitute of the usual quantity of bile ; whilst the other had every appearance that indicated high health. The same effects followed when the experiment was reversed. See *Beddoes's Hygeia*, Vol. ii, p. 35.

† By diluting the wine, we apply the stimulus more generally to the stomach, and thus produce a greater effect with a less quantity of spirit.



tempted to throw off, until the fermented juice of the grape enabled him to triumph over his enemy.

Although it is impossible to enter at any length on the subject of wine, upon which so many volumes have been already written, a work on dietetics would be very imperfect, were the distinctions which exist between the different species to be left unnoticed. Many of these distinctions are important in a medical point of view, as the chemical circumstances, upon which they depend, confer upon the respective wines qualities which are directly connected with their effects on the body.

The term wine, is more strictly and especially applied to express the fermented juice of the *grape*; although in common language it is used to denote that of *any* sub-acid fruit. The presence of *tartar* is, perhaps, the circumstance by which the grape is more strongly distinguished from all the other sub-acid fruits that have been applied to the art of wine making. Its juice, besides, contains, within itself, all the principles essential to vinification, in such a proportion and state of balance as to enable it at once to undergo a regular and complete fermentation; whereas, the juices of other fruits require artificial additions for this purpose: and the scientific application, and due adjustment of these means, constitute the art of making domestic wines\*. It has been remarked, that all those wines that contain an excess of malic acid are of a bad quality: hence the grand defect that is necessarily inherent in the wines of this country, and which leads them to partake of the properties of cyder; for in the place of the *tartaric*, the malic acid always predominates in our native fruits.

The characteristic ingredient of all wines is *alcohol*; and the quantity of this, and the condition or state of combination in which it exists, are the circumstances that include all the interesting points of inquiry, and explain the relative effects which different wines produce upon the system. I shall, therefore, proceed to investigate the various species, with reference to such conditions.

### *Of the Colours of Wines.*

Wines may be at once resolved into two great divisions; into those which are coloured, and commonly called *red* wines, and into those which have a yellow tinge, more or less deep, termed *white* wines. This colouring matter is not derived from the

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\* For an account of which, the reader is referred to a most ingenious and interesting essay by Dr. Macculloch, entitled, "Remarks on the Art of making Wine; with Suggestions for the Application of its Principles to the Improvement of Domestic Wines."

juice, but from the husk of the grapes. If, therefore, the fermentation be not permitted to take place in contact with the husks, a colourless wine is in all cases produced. This colouring matter is highly astringent, and consequently the red wines differ from the white in their effects upon the stomach; and yet it is difficult to explain the well-known extent of this operation, by the presence of so small a proportion of active matter. It must, however, be remembered, that irritable stomachs are frequently impatient of astringent matter. Many persons are incapable of drinking Port wine, in consequence of the heart-burn it occasions; while others, on the contrary, appear to derive advantage from the tonic influence of its astringency. This is a circumstance of peculiar habit which no theory can explain. A popular writer remarks, "When my stomach is not in good temper, it generally desires to have *red* wine; but when in best health, nothing affronts it more than to put Port in it: and one of the first symptoms of its coming into adjustment, is a wish for *white* wine." Every physician must be practically aware of the caprice which the stomach displays in its morbid conditions; but, as a general rule, it may be stated, that *white* deserve a preference over *red* wines, because the latter being pressed, and subjected to a stronger fermentation, to extract the colouring principles from the husk, are necessarily more loaded with extractive and astringent matter; and as this remains in the stomach after the liquid portion of the wine is absorbed, it will be liable to occasion disturbance.

### *The Flavour of Wines.*

The odour, or *bouquet* and flavour, which distinguish one wine from another, evidently depend upon some volatile and fugacious principle not hitherto investigated by the chemist; this, in sweet and half-fermented wines, is immediately derived from the fruit, as in those from the *Frontignan* and *Muscat* grapes: but in the more perfect wines, as in *Claret*, *Hermitage*, *Rivesaltes*, and *Burgundy*, it bears no resemblance to the natural flavour of the fruit, but is altogether the product of the vinous process. The menstruum of this volatile principle is, doubtless, in most instances, the alcohol contained in wines; but its quantity is so minute as to be incapable of separation. In this latter case it frequently appears to produce a very remarkable effect upon the nervous system, and may possibly be hereafter discovered to be a new principle of extraordinary powers; such an opinion, at least, is sanctioned by the well known effects of Burgundy; the excitement produced by this wine being peculiar, and not bearing any relation to the propor-

tion of alcohol contained in it. Some wines are artificially flavoured by the introduction of foreign ingredients, as by almonds in Madeira wines, as well as in those of Xeres and St. Lucar; and hence their well known nutty flavour. Among the ancients, and in modern Greece, it is at this day the fashion to give a resinous flavour, by the introduction of turpentine into the casks. These wines were supposed to assist digestion, to restrain morbid discharges, to provoke urine, and to strengthen the bowels: but Dioseorides informs us, that they were known to produce vertigo, pain in the head, and many evils not incidental to the potations of the same vinous liquor, when free from such admixtures.

*The Effects of the Acid contained.*

The quantity of acid contained in wines has been supposed capable of diminishing their salubrity, and in some cases of rendering them imminently noxious. There can be no doubt, that where acetic acid has been generated during a protracted fermentation, it will deteriorate the virtues of wine, and render it obnoxious to the stomach; but where the acid arises from the nature of the fruit, it cannot merit the odium which popular opinion would assign to it. What, for instance, is the acid contained in Madeira, and against which so many objections have been urged? an atom merely of tartar. And yet the person who fancies that his digestion can be deranged by its action, will swallow twenty times the quantity of the same ingredient in some other shape, with perfect indifference and impunity. Sir Anthony Carlisle\*, who has carried his prejudices against acids farther than any other writer, says, "long-continued and watchful observation induce me to conclude, that the acid qualities of fermented liquors are no less injurious than the spirit which they contain." If the process of reasoning by which he arrived at such a conclusion, be not more correct than the experiments which enabled him to ascertain the quantities of acid matter in different fermented liquors, it cannot merit the confidence of the public. His table, which was constructed to exhibit "gross proofs" (*of error?*) of the relative quantities of free acid in ordinary fermented drinks, is a chemical curiosity. The tyro who has attended a single course of lectures will at once perceive, by casting his eyes over this table, that its results are wholly inconsistent with the doctrine of chemical equivalents. He tells us that "a moderate-sized glassful, containing two ounces (avoir-dupois) of Port wine, required for neutralization, three grains of Henry's calcined magnesia, or six grains of carbonate of potass,

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\* An Essay on the Disorders of Old Age.



or four grains of sub-carbonate of soda, or nine grains of prepared chalk." Now these are not the relative proportions in which such bases could, by any possibility, unite with any acid; but granting, for the sake of argument, that our scales of equivalents are in error, and that the true proportions have been ascertained by the experiments in question, we shall then discover, that the tabulated results are not consistent with themselves; for in a second experiment, made with Vidonia, the numbers indicating the combining weights of these substances are not, as in the former case, in the relation of 3, 6, and 4, but in that of 5, 7, and 6; in the third experiment with Sherry, in that of 3, 5 and 4; in a fourth, with London porter in that of 5, 3.5, and 3; and, in the last, with brewers' fresh table beer, the proportions are 2.5, 2, and 2. Sir Anthony was aware of these discordances; and he attempts to explain them by supposing that they may be "owing to the varying affinities of native acids, derived from the fruits, and the acid products of fermentation, as they regarded the several tests." It is almost unnecessary to state, that this supposition is in direct variance with the acknowledged doctrine of definite proportionals, and the fundamental principle of chemical combinations. Let the acids be what they may, the respective bases must always unite with them in an invariable and constant ratio.

#### *Effects on Gout.*

Before we quit the subject of vinous acidity, I shall beg to say a few words upon its supposed influence in exciting paroxysms of gout. That such attacks have followed certain potations, I do not mean to deny; but a slight excess of any kind, whether in diet or in exercise, will excite the disease in those predisposed to it. Where the train is laid, an additional glass of claret may have acted as the match; but in all such cases, the explosion would have equally taken place, had, instead of claret, some other exciting cause fired it.

#### *The Effects of the Alcohol contained in Wines.*

The characteristic ingredient of all wines is alcohol; and the quantity of this, and the condition or state of combination in which it exists, are the circumstances in which the medical inquirer is principally interested. The late experiments of Mr. Brande have thrown considerable light upon this subject; although, as in most instances of discovery, they have raised up new doubts and difficulties. Daily experience convinces us, that the same quantity of alcohol applied to the stomach under the form of wine, and in a state of mixture with water, will produce very different effects upon the body, and to an extent

which it is difficult to understand. It has, for instance, been demonstrated beyond the reach of doubt, that Port, Madeira, and Sherry contain from one-fourth to one-fifth their bulk of alcohol; so that a person who takes a bottle of either of them, will thus take nearly half a pint of alcohol, or almost a pint of pure brandy! and moreover, that different wines, although containing the same absolute proportion of spirit, will be found to vary very considerably in their intoxicating powers. No wonder, then, that such results should have staggered the philosopher, who is naturally unwilling to accept any tests of difference from the nervous system, which elude the ordinary resources of analytical chemistry. The conclusion was therefore drawn, that alcohol must necessarily exist in wine in a far different condition from that in which we know it in a separate state; or, in other words, that its elements only could exist in the vinous liquor, and that their union was determined, and, consequently, alcohol produced, by the act of distillation. That it was the *product*, and not the *educt* of distillation, was an opinion which originated with Rouelle, who asserted that alcohol was not completely formed until the temperature was raised to the point of distillation. More lately, the same doctrine was revived and promulgated by Fabbroni, in the Memoirs of the Florentine Academy. Gay Lussac has, however, silenced the partisans of this theory, by separating the alcohol by distillation, at the temperature of 66° Fahrenheit; and, by the aid of a vacuum, it has since been effected at 56°. And to complete the demonstration, Mr. Brande has shewn that, by precipitating the colouring matter, and some other elements of the wine, by the *sub-acetate of lead*, and then saturating the clear liquor with *sub-carbonate of potass*, the alcohol may be separated without any elevation of temperature; and he has accordingly, by this ingenious expedient, been enabled to construct a table, exhibiting the proportions of spirit which exist in the several kinds of wine. No doubt, therefore, can any longer be entertained upon the subject; and the fact of the difference of effect produced by the same bulk of alcohol, when presented to the stomach in different states, is to be explained on the supposition that, in wine, it is not only more intimately mixed with water, but that it exists in combination with its extractive matter; in consequence of which, it is incapable of exerting its full effects before it becomes altered in its properties, or, in other words, partially *digested*; and this view of the subject may be fairly urged in explanation of the fact, that the intoxicating effects of the same wine are liable to vary in degree in the same individual, from the peculiar state of his digestive organs at the time of its potation.

**DR. STEWART'S CURE FOR CONSUMPTION.**

This fatal disorder in general originates from a mal-conformation of the chest, and its too great narrowness. Where such a personal defect does not exist, an intelligent clergyman in Scotland, (the Rev. Dr. Stewart, now minister of Erskine,) who was originally bred to medicine, has recommended a plan, which has certainly succeeded in several instances, when applied at the commencement of the disease. Dr. Stewart's remedy is,

A wine glassful of water,  
a tea cupful of vinegar,  
a dessert spoonful of rum.

This mixture to be applied with a sponge, to the neck and chest, morning and evening, for a considerable length of time ; and gradually to the whole body. Besides this application, Dr. Stewart recommends much exercise without doors ; and a nourishing diet, in particular, meat to breakfast, and good malt liquor to dinner. When the patient has gained strength, sea bathing may be tried.

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**ON THE CONSTRUCTION OF BEDS AND BEDDING.**

The progress of improvement, in the article of beds, or couches for repose, may be worth tracing, as a curious object of inquiry.

In the poems of the celebrated Ossian, the original mode of sleeping, when men were easily accommodated with a situation for repose, is thus described :—

Connal lay by the sounding stream,  
Beneath a leafless oak.  
Upon a moss-clad stone  
The chief of heroes reclined his head.

When men began to shelter themselves in caves or houses, it would be natural to sleep upon heath, grass, leaves, or straw, spread upon the ground, which was the first step to improvement.

In the houses of the Russian peasantry, there are no beds, but broad benches, on which they sit in the day-time, and sleep all night. This is an improvement from the low floor.

In England and in Scotland, during the feudal period of our history, the proprietors of land lived in castles, which were not always accommodated with a number of rooms ; and where it was often necessary for the greater number of the inhabitants



to sleep together, in the great hall, on straw, brought in for that purpose, and which was swept away next morning. From the following account, given by Hollinshed, we may judge of the ancient mode of sleeping in England.—Our fathers, and we ourselves, have lain full often upon straw pallettees, covered only with a sheet, under coverlets made of dagswain or hopelots, (we use their own terms) *and a good round log under their head instead of a bolster*. If it were so, that the father or the good man of the house had a matrass or a flock bed, and thereto a sack of chaff to rest his head upon, he thought himself to be as well lodged as the lord of the town. So well were they contented.—Pillows, said they, were thought meet only for women in child-bed. As for servants, if they had any sheet above them, it was well; for seldom they had any under their bodies, to keep them from the prickling straws, that ran oft through the canvass, and razed their hardened hides.—See Hume's History of England, Vol. iv. notes, p. 462.

It must have required a great deal of consideration, before what is called a bed, or a place solely appropriated for sleep, was introduced; and at first it probably consisted of nothing but the frame or bedstead, without top or curtains, and covered with skins, straw, or heath.

The next improvement would be, what are called *box-beds*, still common in many parts of Scotland; the top and the sides of which, and even the door, being of timber, they would be well calculated for houses, which were then more pervious to the weather than they are at present.

The bed, according to the present fashion, mounted on pedestals, with a cover above, and surrounded with curtains, that could either be opened or shut, was derived from the East; and thence gradually introduced, first into the southern, and then to the northern parts of Europe. The Greek beds were composed of girth bottoms, ornamented with quilts, coverlets, and probably with some sort of bolsters. There do not appear to have been any pavilions or testers; nor were curtains anciently used in Greece. Homer makes no mention of them. They undressed when they went to bed. Their bedsteads, even in the time of Homer, were ornamented with gold, silver and ivory. In the army, the Greeks lay upon skins spread upon the ground; they covered themselves with carpets or other stuffs, which served for blankets; they afterwards had coverlets put above all.

Of European beds, there are three principal sorts. 1st. The English. 2d. The French; and 3d. The Polonaise, with a dome top, calculated for state. The most light, commodious, and altogether convenient bed now in use is what is termed the

French bed, being merely a couch with a head and foot board, and the curtains, which is a plain piece of printed or white furniture, are suspended from an ornamented or plain brass pin driven into the wall, by which means a clear space is left for the admission of air; a sufficient interruption is given to too great a glare of light in Summer, and yet is sufficiently inclosed to prevent the cold being felt in Winter.

The climax of luxury, in regard to this article of furniture, was the pensile, or suspended beds of Asclepiades, by which, if necessary, the person might be rocked to sleep.

Another improvement, recommended by Dr. Franklin, to those who can afford so great a luxury, is to have two beds near to each other; and if they wake in a hot bed, to rise, and go into a cool one. Such shifting of beds, would also be of great service to persons ill of a fever, as it refreshes, and frequently procures sleep. A very large bed, that will admit a removal so distant from the first situation, as to be perfectly cool, may, in some degree, answer the same end.

The subject of the bed or couch may be explained under the following heads:—1st. The nature of the feather bed and bolster. 2d. The height thereof. 3d. The bed-clothes. 4th. The curtains. 5th. Miscellaneous remarks.

1. The materials on which any individual sleeps, is an important consideration. The skins of animals destroyed in the chase, would probably be the first article that hunters would think of. Rushes, straw, and heath, would naturally occur to husbandmen, and those who resided in the country; and are still general in many countries, as France and Italy. In cold countries, where warmth is necessary, feathers are employed. But on the whole, the invention of what are called hair mattresses, is superior to every other, not overheating and relaxing the body, as feather beds are apt to do.

The use of feather beds, excepting in cold climates and seasons, is highly injurious. It is certainly hurtful in many diseases, and some are actually occasioned by that pernicious practice. Feather beds imbibe the perspired vapours thrown out of the body; and unless they are frequently and carefully shaken, aired in the sun, and provided with a new covering, the noxious vapours thrown out of the body may be resorbed, to the great injury of the health. Indeed, such beds should be exposed every morning to the open air, before they are made up. They are particularly calculated for camp-beds, not being so apt to become damp.

The observations of Locke upon this subject are extremely judicious. He remarks, that the bed should be hard for

strengthening the parts ; whereas, being buried every night in feathers, melts and dissolves the body, is often the cause of weakness, and the forerunner of an early grave. Warmth about the kidneys, the necessary consequence of sleeping on down beds, is very apt to breed the stone, and to occasion other disorders.

But though mattresses made of hair or straw ought to be preferred in hot countries, and in warm seasons of the year ; yet in northern climates, where they are much accustomed to use feather beds in Winter, bad consequences have arisen by exchanging them for mattresses during the cold season of the year ; and it has been found very apt to call forth gouty or rheumatic affections in those who have a tendency to such complaints.

In regard to the bolster, it should be well stuffed and elastic. Some recommend that it should be filled with feathers in Winter, and with horse-hair in Summer ; but others contend, that it should be always stuffed with horse-hair, as it is proper to keep the head cool. The pillow should be so disposed, as to suit the usual manner you have adopted of placing your head, so as to be perfectly easy.

2. Several mattresses or feather beds are laid, one above the other, in order to raise the couch to the height that it is required ; but the modern fashion, by which it is necessary to ascend the bed *by steps*, is absurd and dangerous ; and it must be attended with some hazard, ascending or descending, more especially for the aged, or for invalids.

3. It is highly improper for young people to sleep in beds overloaded with clothes. They heat the blood more than is consistent with health ; and produce an immoderate and enervating perspiration, which still more weakens the organs, already relaxed by sleep. But to old people, warm bed-clothes are highly proper and necessary, in order to preserve or increase their heat. From neglecting to attend to that circumstance in very cold countries, the aged have often been found dead in their beds in the morning after a cold night. Macklin, the player, when he got old, always slept in blankets, for the sake of warmth ; and the late Dr. Chovet, of Philadelphia, who lived to be eighty-five, slept in a baize night-gown, under eight blankets and a coverlid, in a stove-room, many years before he died.

In regard to bed-clothes :—the most comfortable discovery hitherto made, was the invention of sheets ; by means of which, dress may be thrown off with comfort, and the body, almost in a state of nature, given up to repose : whilst by woollen coverings, or blankets, in number or thickness adequate to the warmth required, the body is kept in a proper and equal tempe-



rature. Nothing, however, has proved more injurious to health, than damp linen.

4. The use of curtains has been objected to ; but they are in some degree necessary, to exclude the light, which at least in the Summer season might discompose the slumbers at too early a period ; and in Winter they are useful to exclude the cold.

The old custom of warming the bed deserves to be particularly reprobated, as it has a direct tendency to produce weakness and debility. It is still more dangerous, when done with a charcoal fire, the poisonous vapours of which must be highly pernicious.

With a view to health, it is desirable that beds, instead of being made up as soon as people rise out of them, should be turned down, and exposed to the fresh air from open windows for some time.

The bed should never be placed near a wall, more especially if there is any risk of its being damp, or in any country where lightning is frequent ; for a flash of lightning, accidentally entering through the window, will take its direction along the walls, without touching any thing that is not close to them. Beds shut up in close alcoves are extremely objectionable.

The greatest care ought to be taken to beat, and thoroughly to air any bed in which sick persons have lain ; and if any have died of contagious disorders, the beds in which they have lain ought to be buried or burnt, or washed, with potash and boiling water.

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#### ON THE WANT OF SLEEP, AND ITS EFFECTS ON THE MIND.

BY DR. REID.

Obstinate vigilance is not only one of the most uniform symptoms, but also very generally precedes, and in a few instances, may even itself provoke an attack of mental derangement. It is rather, I am aware, to the agitating passion ; or the corroding anxiety, by which the want of sleep is most frequently occasioned, that we ought in many cases to ascribe the insanity which ensues. But even when watchfulness cannot be regarded as the only agent in inducing the disease, it assists, and in no small degree aggravates the operation of the other causes. That this should be the case, it will not be difficult to shew from circumstances obviously attending the state of sleep.

The variety and rapid succession of ideas so remarkable in dreams, cannot but tend to counteract, in some measure, that habit of unvaried thought, which, when it occurs, has been too generally found the melancholy prelude to insanity.

Sleep generally suspends, and by this means preserves in vi-

gour, the voluntary power which, in our waking state, we possess over our thoughts. It is reasonable to suppose, that the power of the will over the current of thought, like that which it exercises over the voluntary muscles, should require, in order permanently to retain its influence, to be recruited by frequent and regular intervals of repose. Where such repose, therefore, has been denied for a considerable period, it seems inevitable that this power should gradually decline, and be at length altogether destroyed.

Sleep often affords a temporary relief from those tumultuous passions, or gnawing solitudes, which, if their operation were not in this way frequently interrupted, would, in no long time, induce a disorder of the mental faculties. Constant vigilance will be likely to produce insanity, by subjecting the mind habitually to that increased violence of feeling, which we must have observed to take place during the darkness, the silence, and the solitude of the night. It is astonishing, in how much more lively a manner we are apt, in these circumstances, to be impressed by ideas that present themselves, than when the attention of the mind is dissipated, and its sensibility, in a considerable degree, absorbed by the action of light, sound, and that variety of objects, which, during the day, operate upon our external senses.

From such considerations it will be evident, that any strong feeling, or any favourite idea, will be apt to acquire an ascendancy, and, in some instances, a dominion completely despotic over the mind, when it becomes the subject, as in cases of obstinate vigilance it inevitably will be, of an habitual nocturnal meditation. "It is not generally known, that anxiety and sleeplessness, during the American war, are believed, by those persons who had the best opportunity for forming an opinion upon the subject, to have laid the foundation of the malady by which the King was afflicted during the latter years of his life."—SOUTHEY's *Vision of Judgment*.

I have been often solicited to recommend a remedy for wakefulness, or broken and untranquil sleep by hypochondriac patients, who had previously tried all the medicinal, or dietetic opiates, as well as other methods for producing the same effect, without obtaining the object of their wishes. In these cases I advised the use of the cold or the warm bath, and generally with decided advantage. The cold bath is by no means a novel prescription for the malady we are speaking of; we find Horace long ago recommended it,

"Transunto Tiberim, somno quibus est opus alto.

Want of sleep is often occasioned by some obstruction of the cutaneous pores. The warm and cold baths are not opposite remedies, inasmuch as they have the salutary property, in common, of purifying the surface of the body. In promoting tranquillity, both corporeal and mental, a clean skin may be regarded as next in efficacy to a clear conscience.

Some years ago, I was called to one of the most notorious characters in London. He was an hypochondriac, the principal feature of whose complaint was an obstinate watchfulness. He had, in rotation, tried nearly all the doctors, great and small, in the metropolis; but they seemed all to have been equally inefficient. No medicine could be applied to the seat of his disease; no contrivance of art could lull his conscience to repose. With all his dexterity in fraud, for which he was perhaps unrivalled, he was unable to cheat himself. In our public courts of justice he often, by the application of technical subtleties, braved the judge upon the bench, but he trembled before the secret and more formidable tribunal that was established within his own breast. The laws of England may be evaded, but those of nature cannot. Junius says somewhere that, upon his honour, he never knew a rascal that was a happy man. No one, I believe, ever knew a rascal that was habitually a sound sleeper.

Some writers upon nervous diseases have recommended, in order to produce sleep, heavy and substantial suppers, as if we could keep down the spirit of watchfulness by laying a load upon the stomach. This, in some instances of violent mania, may have answered the purpose, but, in ordinary cases of morbid vigilance, would in general be found to produce quite a contrary effect.

Pharmaceutical remedies are rarely in such cases of any permanent avail. Opium is dreadfully pernicious in its effects upon the feelings and constitution, more particularly of an hypochondriacal patient. It will not always produce sleep; in mania, it very seldom does; and, when so far effectual, the sleep it produces is generally of an unrefreshing nature. Hyoscyamus, or the henbane, is much less injurious than opium; but if it be not equally noxious, it is often altogether nugatory.

Bodily exercise carried to fatigue, is the most innocent, as well as the most effectual of all opiates. A man must work hard in order to earn the privilege of peaceful and continued slumbers. The repose of the night is to be purchased by the labour of the day.

The inward corrodings of remorse, the agitations of conflicting, and the irritation of frivolous passions, prove unfavourable to sleep. But grief, that is profound and unmingled with any



base alloy, is found in general to be soporific in its influence. A poet, who was by no means deficient in knowledge of human nature, seems in this particular to have mistaken it, when he observes of sleep,

“ She like the world, her ready visit pays  
Where fortune smiles ; the wretched she forsakes :  
Swift on her downy pinions flies from woe,  
And lights on lids unsullied by a tear.”

I have an intimate friend who, whenever any thing occurs to distress him extremely, soon becomes drowsy and falls asleep ; and this I believe to be no uncommon case. An Edinburgh fellow-student once informed me, that upon hearing suddenly of the unexpected death of a near relation, he threw himself on his bed, and almost instantly, amidst the glare of noon-day, sank into a profound slumber. The experience of another person I might also state, who, during the illness of his dearest friend, which he had but recently discovered to be hopeless, forced himself to read aloud in order to amuse her. By a violent and painful exertion, he kept his eyes open and his voice in exercise, but his mind was absolutely unconscious of what he uttered, although the work before him would, under other circumstances, have been particularly calculated to awaken his attention. As others have been known to walk, so he read in sleep. Grief, when it is heavy, not only weighs down the eye lids, but, by its pressure upon the brain, tends to produce a stupor of all the faculties.

Next to involuntary vigilance, ranks the almost equal distress of anxious and agitated slumber. Those who wish to sleep composedly ought, if possible, to avoid any thing which agitates or excites them immediately before going to bed. The dissipation of a London Winter is in various ways unfriendly to the soundness of nocturnal repose. The brilliant crowd of images which move before the frequenters of routs and dramatic exhibitions, recur with even greater vivacity when the eyes are closed. The lights with which the saloon or theatre were adorned, continue to irradiate and kindle the imagination when they can no longer operate upon the external sense.

It is sufficiently known that the condition of the mind in sleep is modified by the occurrences and impressions of the previous day ; but we are not, perhaps, equally aware, that dreams cannot fail to have a certain degree of reciprocal influence upon our ideas and sensations during the waking state. The good or the bad day of the sick man depends much upon his good or his bad night ; and although in a less degree the same circumstance affects alike those who are considered as in a condition of

health. The due digestion of our food is scarcely more necessary to health, as it relates even to the body, and more especially as it concerns the mind, than the soundness and serenity of our slumbers. After a night of fancy-created tempest, it is not to be expected that we should at once regain our composure. The heaving of the billows continues for some time after the subsidence of the storm; the troubled vibrations survive the delusion which at first occasioned them; the nerves for some time after the cause has ceased, retain the impression of disorder. The feelings with which we awake, determine, in a great measure, the character of the future day. Each day, indeed, may be regarded as a miniature model of the whole of human life; in which its first seldom fails to give a cast and colour to its succeeding stages. The comfortable or opposite condition of our consciousness immediately subsequent upon sleep, for the most part indicates the degree in which we possess a sound and healthy state of constitution. With those who are in the unbroken vigour of life, the act of awakening is an act of enjoyment; every feeling is refreshed, and every faculty is in a manner regenerated; it is a new birth to a new world; but to the hypochondriacal invalid, or to the untuned and unstrung votary and victim of vicious or frivolous dissipation, the morning light is felt as an intruder. During his perturbed and restless process of convalescence from a diseased dream, he realizes, to a certain extent, the well-pictured condition of the unhappy heroine of the *Æneid*.

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#### MEANS FOR PRESERVING AND BEAUTIFYING THE TEETH.

It is not enough to shun those things which are hurtful to the teeth, you must have recourse to proper means for preserving and beautifying them. The best method for this is to wash the teeth every morning with parget water, that is, water in which white lime plaster has been steeped, or with water of the filings of iron, or with that of chimney-soot. The parget water is prepared in this manner:—

Take four ounces of good lime plaster reduced to powder, pour upon it a pound of water, and let it stand five or six hours; then decant it gently into a proper vessel, and keep it to wash the teeth with. Renew it again as soon as it is done. The same plaster will only serve once.

The water of the filings of iron is as easily prepared as the foregoing. Infuse four ounces of the filings of iron in a pound of water for four and twenty hours, then pour it out, as was done by the former, into a proper vessel, and when that is done

pour another pound of water upon the same filings: for these differ from the plaster in this respect, that you may renew the water upon it as oft as you please.

A little of the sweet spirit of salt in a glass of common water, is a gargle which may be prepared at once for whitening the teeth, if you rub them in the mean time with a linen cloth; but you must wash them immediately afterwards with the water of mallows, or of marshmallows, otherwise they will presently grow yellow and decay. But this is prevented, and the teeth rendered beautiful, only by washing them with this water, which is nothing else than a decoction of either of these herbs. The dose of the spirit of salt ought not to exceed two drops, and you must have recourse to it very seldom.

Chewing of mastich is another good method, both for preserving and beautifying the teeth. The inhabitants of the isle of Chio, where the mastich is produced, are examples of this; for they chew it evening and morning, and have all exceeding fine teeth, notwithstanding the air of the sea, to which they lie contiguous.

Shaving the head frequently dispels a serous humour which is apt to fall upon the teeth. The hair grows faster, and the perspiration is increased, which relieves the gums considerably, and consequently is of great service to the teeth. But you ought to shave in a close place, and as soon as the head is shaved you must take care to keep it sufficiently warm.

When the teeth become loose, the following tincture is of use to fasten them: take a drachm of bistort root, a drachm and a half of red roses, a drachm of balaustines, and two scruples of burnt alum; reduce them all to a powder, then infuse them for five or six hours in a little white wine, and rub the gums with a linen cloth dipped in this infusion a little warm.

When a tooth becomes hollow, you must fill up the hole with a bit of bees-wax, without having recourse either to plates of lead or silver, which are commonly made use of. Wax alone is better for defending the hollow of the tooth from the air, than either of the other two.

As soon as you feel a pain in any of your teeth, however sound and beautiful the tooth may appear outwardly, you must expect to lose it in a short time, unless you take care immediately to preserve it against the danger which threatens. The best preservative is bathing the feet in warm water, by means of which, not only the pained tooth, but likewise the rest are preserved, provided you commit none of the errors mentioned before, which are hurtful to the teeth. But you must use it several times till the pain is quite gone, and likewise repeat it from time to time afterwards.



## DR. PARIS ON INDIGESTION.

Notwithstanding that we have given in former Numbers, a clear, and in our opinion, a very correct account of the preparation of blood from bread, by the various operations of nature, and endeavoured to dissect the hard and cramp terms which so much puzzle the general reader of medical works, and hide from him the true meaning, yet we cannot refrain from giving the opinions of Dr. Paris on the same subject, first for the satisfaction of our readers, and secondly, to gratify a little vanity of our own. In the first place, we are aware of the natural anxiety manifested to peruse the opinions of eminent writers upon so important a subject; and in the next we feel gratified in knowing, that in the perusal, they will find nothing, which *in substance* has not already been discovered in the pages of the Oracle. Dr. Paris differs, it appears, from Dr. W. Philip, and is not inclined to separate dyspepsia from indigestion, but begs his readers to “consider them as synonymous.” Doctors have differed—do differ, and ever will differ; but whether their differences, especially when of such *importance* will tend to the benefit of their patients, time alone must tell. Dr. Paris says,

I define INDIGESTION to be *a primary disease, in which one or more of the several processes by which food is converted into blood, are imperfectly or improperly performed, in consequence either of functional aberration, or organic lesion.* This definition may, perhaps, be opposed, on the ground of its too comprehensive signification; but I may observe, that however extensive may be the series of symptoms which are thus included under one general head, they will afford, when viewed collectively, sufficient evidence of their relation with the digestive process; although, on a loose and hasty observation, they may not present any general principle of dependency and connexion; if they appear disunited, let the practitioner suspect that he has never viewed them with sufficient reference to that physiological harmony which subsists between the organs in which they arise. Acidity of stomach and urinary depositions are equally indicative of deranged digestion; but the mind that is not acquainted with the relations of the stomach and kidneys, or with the connexion which subsists between the formation of perfect chyle and the discharge of natural urine, will not be disposed to arrange symptoms, so apparently remote in their alliance, under one common head. There are many sympathies subsisting between different functions which are not perceptible as long as the general balance of health is preserved; this is remarkably the

case with the skin and stomach; but the moment this healthy equilibrium is destroyed, the sympathies become apparent. The physiologist, therefore, without an acquaintance with the body in its diseased states, must remain ignorant of 'some of the more important circumstances of the animal economy. The same reasoning applies to the study of natural philosophy: the discovery of the existence of an electric fluid could never have been made, had the natural conditions of matter, with regard to this agent, remained unchanged; the basis of all chemical research is founded upon the same principle; decomposition, and the development of the elements of bodies, are effected by overturning the affinities by which they are naturally combined. These observations are introduced in order to warn the practitioner not to deduce any conclusion against the existence of certain sympathies, on the ground of their not being apparent in a state of health. In a practical point of view, I consider the classifications of the nosologist as of very little utility: they have no solid foundation in nature, but are entirely the work of human reason; artificial contrivances, for the purpose of assisting us in the acquirement and retention of knowledge. Such an avowal will sufficiently explain the motive which has induced me to throw off the trammels to which I might have been expected to conform.

#### *Sympathy of the Stomach.*

From the universal sympathy which the stomach entertains for every part of the living body, its functions may become impeded or perverted from the existence of diseases which originate in organs with which it has no immediate connexion; an affection of the head, or even a disease of the urethra, may create sickness, loss of appetite, or a suspension in the digestive process; but such phenomena are not to be confounded with the primary symptoms of dyspepsia; they are affections of sympathy or induction, and will require very different treatment.

In distinguishing between such effects, consists the skill of the practitioner; and it requires a comprehension of mind, a freedom from prejudice, a clearness of judgment, and a patience of minute inquiry, that do not fall to the lot of every member of our profession.

#### *Error of Physicians.*

I am strongly inclined to think that physicians of the present day are too apt to accuse the alimentary functions of offences which should be charged on other organs. It is, perhaps, natural in those who have devoted much time and attention to one particular subject, to fall into an error of this kind; they have a



favourite child of their own to support, and they prefer it with the blind partiality of a parent.

### *Imperfect Chymification.*

The symptoms which arise from the food undergoing its appointed changes in the stomach with difficulty, or in an imperfect manner, are generally those which first indicate the approach of indigestion, and frequently recur at intervals, for a considerable period, without occasioning any constitutional disturbance, or even a degree of local distress sufficient to awaken the alarm of the patient. In some cases, indeed, they are only produced by the use of particular aliments, or under the operation of peculiar circumstances; but in others, they follow the ingestion of every species of food, although their violence is usually influenced by the quality and quantity of the meal. In this latter case, a diseased state of the stomach exists, which ought to be remedied without delay. In investigating the circumstances of an indigestion, produced only by some particular aliment, we shall soon discover whether it is to be attributed to a peculiar habit of the stomach, which cannot be said to amount to disease, or to a debilitated condition of that organ, which renders it unable to digest any food that requires considerable powers for its chymification. The mucous membranes of the stomachs of certain persons appear to be irritated by particular aliments, as the skin is known to be by particular coverings: I am acquainted with a person who can never wear cotton stockings without suffering from considerable cutaneous irritation; and I also know a gentleman who is incapable of eating the smallest quantity of mackarel without experiencing uneasiness in the stomach, and yet he digests every other species of food with facility: this is not disease, but habit and it is very essential to distinguish them from each other. If, on the other hand, a person informs me that, as long as he lives upon mutton or beef, that his digestion goes on well, but that if he eats pork, veal, or fried meat, he suffers from heartburn, and other unpleasant feelings in his stomach, I deduce a different conclusion, and infer that his general powers of digestion are feeble, and easily depressed; and that he is consequently unable to convert into healthy chyme those aliments which require a higher degree of exertion.

### *Power of the Stomach in Health.*

There is no fact better understood, than that the living principle of our organs possesses the power of preventing the chemical changes to which their contents would, under other cir-



cumstances, be exposed. The blood does not coagulate or putrefy in the vessels; the urine does not undergo decomposition in the healthy bladder; nor does the food ferment in the stomach, unless that organ be in a state of disease; but if its vital powers fail, the chemical affinities gain the ascendancy, and, after a certain interval, various symptoms arise, which clearly evince the change which has been produced. This is the philosophy of an ordinary attack of indigestion, when, either from the quantity or quality of the food, the stomach is inadequate to perform its necessary duties. An uneasiness and sensation of weight and distention is experienced in the region of the stomach, acidity prevails, and eructations of disengaged air distress the patient; a sensation of nausea is felt, arising from an effort of the stomach to eject that which it is unable to digest. Chilliness is perceived, and a general lassitude arises from the sympathy which is produced on the nervous and sanguiferous systems. These effects are felt particularly towards the end of chymification, and, after a certain period, pass off, and the remaining parts of the process are apparently conducted with regularity. But this is a statement of the symptoms which attend a casual fit of dyspepsia, as it may occur to persons in health, from the influence of various circumstances, such as an overloaded stomach, indigestible food, a too hearty meal after long fasting or fatigue, obstructed bowels, or any other cause which may occasion a temporary debility of the stomach. It is only necessary, in such a case, to avoid in future the exciting causes, and to clear the bowels of any superfluous and crude matter which may be supposed to lodge in them.

#### *Danger of Sleeping on a loaded Stomach.*

But lightly as we may, in general, treat a casual indigestion of this kind, cases are on record which should awaken us to a sense of its possible mischief, especially if the subject of it be a person advanced in life. If a patient retires to rest before the stomach is relieved, he may pass into a comatose state, accompanied with apoplectic stertor, from which it is not unfrequently difficult to rouse him; and which arises from the sympathy of the brain with the oppressed stomach. It is of great importance to distinguish such an affection from genuine apoplexy, since, if the stomach be not relieved, the stupor increases, and the patient is lost. We should carefully examine the epigastrium, in order to ascertain whether any considerable fulness can be felt in that region, and enquire into the history of the patient: if he can be awakened, no time should be lost in administering an emetic, and it will be a safe practice to abstract a quantity of

blood from the arm, which will have the additional advantage of accelerating the operation of any medicine that may have been administered for his relief. It must, however, be allowed that such attacks from an overloaded stomach are not frequent; and are unlikely to occur, except the muscular powers of that viscus be so impaired as to prevent the usual efforts which nature employs to throw off an unmanageable burthen.

Should indigestion in the stomach continue to recur, the paroxysm will assume a more troublesome character; its symptoms will increase in number and extent, and the mischief will speedily involve other functions: but before I proceed to follow the course which it usually runs, it will be useful to examine the causes to which the origin of the disease in the stomach is to be attributed.

### *Function of the Stomach.*

It has been stated, that, in every change which the aliment undergoes, we shall discover the combined operation of mechanical and chemical agents: when the food, therefore, is introduced into the stomach, it owes its conversion into chyme to such combined actions, viz. the chemical power of the gastric juice, and the mechanical movements of the stomach. It is to the failure or imperfect operation of one or the other of these necessary actions that indigestion is to be attributed. However perfectly the gastric juice may be secreted, if the mass be not sufficiently *churned* in the stomach, it cannot become perfect chyme; and the most active motions of the stomach will not compensate for a deficiency in the alimentary solvent. It signifies very little whether the paucity of the gastric liquor be absolute or relative; that is to say, whether it be originally secreted in less than a natural proportion, or the quantity of food taken be so great that the usual proportion of the solvent is insufficient for its solution; in either case, an indigestion must follow, although there appears to exist an accommodating power in the *healthy* stomach, which enables it to regulate its supply according to the call which may be made for it.

The quality and quantity of the gastric fluid, secreted by the stomach, may be influenced by causes immediately acting upon that organ, or by those which affect it through the medium of sympathy. Under the first class of causes may be noticed those which produce a direct influence upon the nerves of the stomach, without whose healthy action no secreting surface can perform its functions with regularity. Amongst these, the injudicious ingestion of narcotic substances, or of alcohol, deserve a distinguished notice. The languor arising from inanition also brings



on what Mr. Abernethy calls a "discontented state of the stomach;" in which case, the gastric juice is not secreted in a healthy manner. But the causes which act locally on the secreting powers of the stomach are few in number, and perhaps small in importance, when compared with those which act through the medium of sympathy. During the periods at which the posterior stages of digestion are performed, the healthy secretion of gastric juice is not easily excited; and if, therefore, food be presented at these times, it will be apt to occasion indigestion. An overloaded state of the bowels will be attended with the same consequence; exercise, when accompanied with fatigue, or indolence, may, by producing general debility, occasion a corresponding state of collapse in the stomach. Passions of the mind, fear, anxiety and rage, are also well known to affect the nervous system, and through that medium, the stomach; and so immediately are its consequences experienced, that a person receiving intelligence at the hour of a repast, is incapable of eating a morsel, whatever might have been his appetite before such a communication.

Read o'er this;  
And after this; and then to breakfast  
*With what appetite you have."*

### *Sympathy of the Skin.*

The sympathy subsisting between the skin is another source, and often an unexpected cause of gastric debility. If the cutaneous vessels be unusually excited, and this excitation be continued for any length of time, they will at length fall into a state of indirect debility, whence a sense of faintness, loss of appetite and inability of digesting solid food, will be experienced. This fact explains the diminished appetite of which persons complain in hot weather, and that universal custom in tropical climates of combining the food with aromatic stimulants. One of the most striking instances indicative of this consent between the skin and stomach is, where cold or wet is applied to the lower extremities, exciting pain in that organ and indigestion. Violent spasms, and in persons predisposed to gout, an attack of that disease in the stomach, have been occasioned by remaining for some time with the feet thoroughly wet. The custom of pouring spirit into the shoes or boots upon such occasions, from the mistaken idea of counteracting the evil, increases the mischief, from the additional cold produced by its evaporation\*. The first object, under such circumstances, is to prevent evaporation;

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\* See Oracle, Vol. III.



and the chance of taking cold is greatly diminished, if not entirely prevented, by covering the wet clothes with some dry garment. It has been said, and perhaps with some reason, that their thin shoes and light dress render delicate females, notwithstanding their temperance, more subject to the whole tribe of dyspeptic complaints, particularly flatulence and want of appetite.

As the skin acts upon the stomach, so does the stomach, in its turn, re-act upon the skin; for all sympathies are reciprocal. A physician who is conversant with affections of the stomach well knows how to appreciate the indications which the appearance of the countenance affords; there is a peculiar pallor and relaxed condition of the skin, which is truly indicative of a deranged state of the digestive organs, and which gradually disappears under a successful treatment. The want of appetite for breakfast, which is complained of by invalids, is frequently to be attributed, amongst other causes, to the atony produced on the surface of the body, and consequently on the stomach, by sympathy, by the relaxing influence of a warm bed; and hence arises the utility of restoring a reaction, by fresh air and exercise, before we attempt to sit down to our morning repast. The warm bath, if not at too high a temperature, or indulged in for such a length of time as to induce indirect debility, will be found by its stimulant operation on the skin, to place the stomach in a condition to digest the dinner when employed a few hours before that meal. I shall have to refer to these facts when I come to consider the modes of curing indigestion.

The influence of a healthy condition of the digestive organs upon the skin, is so well understood by those that direct the art of training, that the clearness of the complexion is considered the best criterion of a man being in good condition, to which is added the appearance of the under lip, "which is plump and rosy, in proportion to the health of the constitution\*."

The stomach also sympathises, in a remarkable degree, with the urinary organs; nephritic complaints are invariably attended with nausea. I lately had a very troublesome case of dyspepsia under my care, which was aggravated, if not originally produced, by a troublesome stricture in the urethra, which kept up a constant irritation.

#### *Causes which Injure the powers of the Stomach.*

I have next to consider the causes which may operate in depressing or paralyzing the muscular powers of the stomach, by

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\* See Oracle, Article TRAINING.

which the mechanical process, essential to chymification, is imperfectly performed. Of these, undue distention is perhaps the most common, and, at the same time, the most powerful. This may be proved, not only from ample observation on the stomach, but by the analogy of other cavities : if the bladder be distended for some time with urine, its muscular powers are paralysed ; it has often happened that where a person has, from necessity, retained his urine for a considerable time, on attempting to void it, he has found himself incapable of expelling a single drop, although the bladder has been ready to burst from over-distention. The same fact occurs with respect to the rectum ; if this observation be applied to the stomach, we shall easily perceive why, in an over-distended state of that viscus, vomiting can scarcely be produced by the most violent emetic ; and we shall readily understand from the same train of argument, how greatly the muscular fibres may become permanently debilitated by the repetition of such an excess. This over-distention is particularly apt to occur in cases where the food has a tendency to swell, from the heat and moisture of the stomach ; for a person may not be aware of the quantity he has taken from any sensation of fulness at the time he ceases to eat, and yet, in the space of an hour, he may experience the greatest uneasiness from such a cause. This generally happens where much new bread has been taken ; nuts have also this property in a remarkable degree, and ought, for such a reason, to be prohibited, where such an effect is to be apprehended. A draught of soda water, or any beverage which contains fixed air, may be visited with the same penalty. There are certain postures of the body, which, by preventing the necessary egress of the contents of the stomach, favour an accumulation in its cavity ; this occurs in the occupation of the shoemaker, tailor, engraver, from stooping on the last, or desk, by which the thoracic and abdominal viscera are compressed together for many hours ; the margin of their ribs is pressed upwards, so as to force the stomach against the diaphragm, and to impede the passage through the pylorus : it is evident, that if such a habit be continued after a full meal, that all the train of dyspeptic terrors must be produced ; and we have all witnessed too many practical illustrations of the fact, to require farther evidence of its truth. The profession is much indebted to Dr. W. Philip, for having proved by experiments, related in his *Inquiry into the Laws of the Vital Functions*, that the muscular fibre, though independent of the nervous system, may, in every instance, be influenced through it ; from which it follows, as a corollary, that the muscular fibres of the stomach may not only be affected by causes acting



directly on them, but *by such an act through the medium of the nerves*. Hence, the presence of offensive matter in the stomach, whether arising from noxious aliment, or vitiated secretion, will have the effect of diminishing its muscular energy. It is in this way that a draught of cold water, or a quantity of ice, may at once paralyse the stomach. In cases, therefore, of protracted indigestion, it is evident that both the *chemical* and *mechanical* functions of the stomach will be injured; neither the one nor the other can long remain alone affected. Irritation of the nerves will occasion vitiated secretion, will become a source of irritation to the nerves.

We have seen the manner in which indigestion may take place in the stomach; but there are cases in which the secretions of that organ are perfectly performed, and in which the muscular contractions of the stomach are carried on with healthy vigour and regularity. The chyme is, therefore, duly elaborated, and the paroxysm of dyspepsia may not commence until the food has entered the duodenum.

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#### THE UTILITY OF FRESH AIR.

Few persons, we believe, are fully aware of the advantages to be obtained by a free circulation of atmospheric air in their apartments. Invalids in particular, from their constant seclusion, are led to imagine that they suffer from the admission of air, and are injured by every breath that blows; and probably they are so when entirely shut up in close rooms, breathing over and over again the same impure air. Fresh air when combined with moderate exercise, is the foundation stone of health; and the following anecdote of two sisters who had followed quite a different system, exemplifies very clearly the relative merits of each plan.

The elder was fond of reading or needle-work, and, in general, of every thing that suited a sedentary life. She was weak; her nerves were very irritable; and every change of weather affected her. She was perpetually obliged to have recourse to medicines, which, probably, would have had the desired effect, had they been properly assisted by a sound constitution, arising from proper attention to air and exercise. But she was always at home, always under the care of a physician and apothecary, and always ailing.

Her sister, on the other hand, was a very lively girl, and naturally possessed of good sense. She did not neglect to apply to her works and studies at proper times; but she had made it a rule to walk out whenever the weather permitted. Bad wea-



ther had seldom any other effect upon her, than to deprive her of her usual exercise. By these means, she enjoyed an excellent state of health; and whenever she happened to have any complaint, her physician had the satisfaction never to be disappointed in the effects of his medicines.

Justly, therefore, was it answered by the intelligent physician, who, being asked what was the best rule for the preservation of health, replied, "*To be as much in the open air as possible, without fatigue.*"

The importance of a knowledge of the properties and uses of the atmosphere, is very happily elucidated by the following anecdote. It is said, that the late Dr. Darwin, one day, at Nottingham, assembled a large crowd of people around him, and thus addressed himself to them:—"Ye men of Nottingham, listen to me. You are ingenious and industrious mechanics. By your industry, life's comforts are procured for yourselves and families. If you lose your health, the power of being industrious will forsake you. *That* you know; but you do *not* know, that to breathe fresh and changed air constantly, is not less necessary to preserve health than sobriety itself. Air becomes unwholesome in a few hours, if the windows are shut. Open those of your sleeping rooms, whenever you quit them to go to your work-shops. Keep the windows of your work-shops open, whenever the weather is not insupportably cold. I have no *interest* in giving you this advice. Remember what I, your countryman, and a physician tell you. If you would not bring *infection* and disease upon yourselves, and to your wives and little ones, change the air you breathe. Change it by opening your windows several times a-day."

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#### ON THE APPLICATION OF BLISTERS. By Mr. NORTH.

The French and German physicians, says Mr. North, are well aware of the mal-practice with which the English practitioners are frequently chargeable, of applying blisters as counter-irritants upon the head, when any affection of the brain is to be apprehended. They judiciously prefer the use of sinapisms or stimulating poultices, or perhaps small blisters to the inferior extremities. In my opinion, we have too little confidence in the powers of mustard sinapisms applied to the feet, where there is a state of great cerebral excitement to be contended with. In many cases both of children and adults, I have found them to be very powerful auxiliaries.

If convulsions occur during fever, we are advised by many authorities to apply blisters freely. I confess that I am ignorant

of the principle upon which this practice is recommended. In many cases I have seen considerable distress and aggravation of symptoms arise from blistering children during a state of general irritation or fever. I have twice known infants destroyed in consequence of the sloughing of blisters, the progress of which could not be arrested. If I may venture to express an opinion which has been impressed upon me by repeated observation, notwithstanding it is in direct opposition to all the doctrines I have heard maintained in the medical schools, I should say, that if blisters were *never* applied to children in any case whatever, much less evil would arise from the want of them, than is in common practice daily, or perhaps hourly, inflicted by this popular and painful practice. What can be more unjustifiable than the language which we constantly hear employed upon the subject of blistering children. It is in the mouth of every old woman, and of some practitioners too, that "a blister is a fine remedy, and that at least it can do no harm." Is the infliction of many hours torment no harm? When a remedy is evidently applied without any settled principle, it is a subject of fair inquiry to investigate the claim it has to our confidence. If a child is in a state of coma from presumed oppression of the brain, and if the practitioner wishes to excite every organ to increased activity, and to rouse the nearly extinguished powers of life, he applies a blister, and perhaps with benefit. This is the only condition in which we can look with any degree of reliance upon blisters in infantile diseases, and in which we need not be apprehensive of any bad effects. But the very same practitioner, if he has to treat a case of local inflammation, pneumonia, for example, will seek assistance from the same remedy. The disease itself is productive of much general irritation, and of considerable local distress. Whatever is likely to act as a stimulus must be prejudicial, although we may be obedient to the instructions of allaying the severity of the attack by bleeding, &c. before we have recourse to blisters. In the latter case, the condition of the patient is totally the reverse of the former. If in the comatose state a blister acts beneficially as an excitant, it must be prejudicial in the other, for the same reason. I confess I should leave entirely out of the question the benefit it is presumed we derive from the counter irritative effects of blisters, when applied to young children. Excepting in the particular cases I have referred to, I believe with much confidence that the advantage from blistering is rarely equivalent to the pain and general irritation it produces. The period at which we apply blisters in local inflammatory affections is not to be forgotten. We first subdue the severity of the disease by other and appropriate re-

medics : and when it is upon its decline, when in all probability the unassisted powers of nature would successfully perform the remainder of the task, a blister is applied. The patient gets well notwithstanding the additional pain thus inflicted; and the fortunate result of the case, which is really to be attributed to the measures previously employed, is said to be owing to the good effects of counter irritation, &c., blister gains a character to which in point of fact it has no claim. It is to be regretted, that the opinions of Baglivi upon the application of blisters are not more attended to in practice. For the last ten years I have rarely if ever applied blisters to children for the purpose of relieving any local inflammation. I have had occasional opportunities of watching the progress of cases where they have been employed from the recommendation of higher authority; and excepting in totally different conditions, where it was the object to excite a depressed state of the vital powers, I have never been able to satisfy myself of the benefit produced. In general practice, children are blistered with the same views and with as little precaution as adults. But he who acts upon this principle, must forget the highly irritable nature of children, and cannot have had opportunities of witnessing the torment which they frequently endure from blisters. By some practitioners we are recommended to allow a blister to remain on for only two or three hours. By this means, it is true, less pain is usually inflicted, and the patient has a better chance of escaping the torment which would result from the common practice. It may perhaps be thought trifling to offer these observations upon the application of blisters; I confess I am of a different opinion. It is strictly incumbent upon us to examine the probability of affording relief, before we hasten to the use of a remedy which is sure to inflict considerable suffering. The remarks I have made upon this subject refer exclusively to children; although, perhaps, the conflicting views with which blisters are applied to adults are equally manifest and inexplicable. The freedom and frequency with which blisters are applied, either to children or adults, upon the mere principle of counter irritation, during the course of inflammatory affections, is a practice of modern introduction. The ancients made but little use of blisters, and confined the remedy to "cold diseases," in which no danger could be apprehended from their stimulating effects. In inflammatory affections of the throat particularly, I have frequently seen much harm arise from blistering children; and if we take a survey of the opinions of the most respectable writers upon infantile diseases, we shall find that the general and almost indiscriminate practice of blistering, is not supported by their authority. In one of the fatal cases of in-



inflammation of the mucous membrane of the larynx and trachea, recorded by Dr. Baillie, it is observed, that "the blister occasioned so much irritation, that it was taken off before it produced its full effect." This will frequently be the case. The observations I have ventured upon the subject of blistering children are not irrelevant to the subject of convulsions, for I have frequently seen very severe paroxysms brought on in consequence of their injudicious and unnecessary application."

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#### ON THE BENEFICIAL EFFECTS OF NATIVE TEAS.

It is said, that all the benefits resulting from the use of tea are owing to the warm water merely, and that it would not be difficult to discover some useful and popular substitute for tea; one, in point of health, not only equal, but preferable to that article; of a nature also likely to be generally adopted. Dr. Willich commends various herbs produced in this country, and is astonished, that in a country so full of speculation and enterprise, and where so much money is made by the sale of quack medicines, no attempt has been made to introduce domestic teas but one, namely, Dr. Solander's *Sanative Tea*. Some of our strongly aromatic flowers, as the woodroose, excel in flavour the teas of China; and the first leaves of whortleberry, properly gathered, and in the shade, cannot be distinguished from real teas. Indeed the vegetable ingredient, it is contended, is of little consequence, and that nothing can be more absurd than to be sending to such an enormous distance, for the leaf of a shrub to make a warm infusion, when we have so many shrubs of our own growth, which may be accounted at least as innocent, if not more salutary. Amongst these articles, the most celebrated are sage and balm.

The virtues of sage were formerly so much extolled, that it was said

"Why do men die, whilst sage in garden grows?"

But it is much less thought of at present, though it is frequently used by the Chinese, in the form of tea, as a tonic, for debilities in the stomach and nervous system. Of the twelve species of sage, the *Tomentosa*, or what gardeners call the *Balsamic Sage*, is preferred to all others for making tea. Sir William Temple recommends it, as not only a wholesome herb for common uses, but as admirable for consumptive coughs, having cured some very desperate ones, by continuing for a month a draught every morning, of spring water, with a handful of sage boiled in it. It was formerly considered highly serviceable in palsies, apoplexies, and cold rheumatic defluxions; and it has been

remarked that if it had come like tea, from some remote region, its virtues would have been more prized.

Balm is another article, an infusion of which has been used for tea. The species of this herb, called by botanists the *Melissa Hortensis*, or Garden Balm, is preferred for medicinal or dietetic purposes. As a medicine, it is reckoned cordial, and beneficial for all disorders in the head and nerves; and even as tea, according to Miller, it is greatly esteemed. One or two examples are not sufficient to establish any particular system; but it is asserted, that John Hussey, of Sydenham, in Kent, who lived to 116, took nothing for his breakfast for fifty years but balm-tea, sweetened with honey; and herb teas were the usual breakfast of Fluellyn, Prince of Glamorgan, who died in the 108th year of his age.

A variety of other infusions are prepared from juniper-berries, aniseed, fennel, coriander, the leaves of betony, rosemary, and other articles, which are made after the same manner as tea, and drank either with or without sugar. It is far from being improbable that, among the variety of herbs which our gardens produce, a substitute might be found for tea; and it certainly would be desirable to ascertain, by decisive experiments, the virtues of the different plants produced in this country, and their uses either for diet or medicine.

Among other infusions in water, that of ginger has been strongly recommended, more especially in gouty cases; and it is contended, that ginger tea, with a large addition of milk for breakfast, would, in various cases, be preferable to Chinese tea as at present taken. The best Barbadoes white ginger, to be had at any apothecary's, ought to be preferred; it should be powdered rough in a mortar. At first a tea-spoonful of the powdered ginger may be taken in boiled milk, either to supper or breakfast. The quantity may afterwards be increased to two, or even three drachms.

Sir Joseph Banks gave the following account of the effect of ginger tea upon himself:—

“I have taken two tea-spoonsful heaped up, of ginger powder, in a pint of milk, boiled with bread, and sweetened with sugar, for breakfast, for more than a year past. The weight of the ginger is between two and three drachms. At first, this quantity was difficult to swallow, if the ginger was good. I was guided in my quantity by the effect it had on my stomach; if it made me hiccough, the dose was too large.

“I found occasionally that it produced *ardor urinæ*; but this went off, without any ill consequences whatever.

“I have not yet found it necessary to increase the dose; but I

use rather a coarser powder than I did at first, which mixes more easily with the milk, and probably produces rather more effect than the fine.

“The late Lord Rivers took ginger in large doses for more than thirty years; and at eighty, was an upright and healthy old man.

“I have, since I used the ginger, had one fit of the gout; but it was confined entirely to my extremities, and never assailed either my head, my loins, or my stomach, and lasted only seventeen or eighteen days; but the last fit I had, before I took the ginger, affected my head, my stomach, and my loins; and lasted, with intervals, from the end of October to January.”

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### RULES FOR GUARDING AGAINST ACCIDENTS.

There is an Institution, called “The Preservative Society,” founded in the county of Northampton, in October 1739. Its objects were, 1. To circulate printed *cautions* for preventing the causes of many of the accidents which occasion death; 2. To publish *directions* for preserving life under seeming death; and, 3. To grant *rewards* to those who assisted in saving the lives of their fellow-creatures in such emergencies.

The Society likewise extended its views to the preservation of human life, in various cases of imminent danger, respecting which it was the means of diffusing much useful information.

1. Among the *cautions* recommended by the Northamptonshire Society for the better prevention of accidents, the following are the chief:—

Most sudden deaths come by water; particular caution is therefore necessary, in its neighbourhood.

Stand not near a tree, nor any leaden spout, iron gate, or palisado, in time of lightning.

Lay loaded guns in safe places, and never imitate firing a gun in jest.

Never sleep near charcoal; if drowsy at any work where charcoal fires are used, take the fresh air.

Carefully rope trees before they are cut down, that when they fall they may do no injury.

When numbed with cold, beware of sleeping out of doors; rub yourself, if you have it in your power, with snow.

Beware of damps under ground.

Air vaults, by letting them remain open some time before you enter, or scattering powdered lime in them.

Never leave saddle or draught horses, while in use, by themselves.



Ride not on footways.

Be wary of children, whether they are up, or in bed; and particularly near the fire.

Leave nothing poisonous open or accessible.

When you feel very uneasy, tell your distress early to a steady friend.

2. The *directions* for remedying accidents are short and simple.

When any accident happens, the common assistants are to do nothing but as instructed in the printed directions. Only six persons to be ever present at a time. It is recommended to continue the means of recovery for six hours, unless sooner successful, or the body becomes putrid.

As a specimen of the directions, contained in the printed paper, circulated by the Society, the following are given, to be adopted in cases where persons are frozen:—

*First Person.*—Rub the body with snow or cold water; take it to the nearest room with a fire-place, but not near the fire.

*Second Person.*—Let a messenger be sent to the nearest physician or surgeon, whose directions, as soon as he arrives, are to be strictly observed.

*Third and Fourth Persons.*—Help the first assistant to bring on warmth by slow degrees, by rubbing and blowing in, so as to imitate natural breath.

3. In regard to *rewards*; (1.) the person first receiving the body, and keeping it as long as the medical attendant desires, to have one guinea, and to be secured from burial charges.

(2.) Four guineas to be distributed among the keepers, if successful.

(3.) Two guineas to be given them, if unsuccessful.

(4.) The messenger who goes for a physician or surgeon from the nearest town, to receive one shilling per mile.

Such are the outlines of this useful establishment, of which I thought it right to give some account, as it seems to be judiciously planned, and capable of being generally adopted; for the fund only amounted to about £50 per annum, and with that moderate sum the expences were defrayed. If societies on a similar plan were erected in every district, what benefit would not accrue to the public? Indeed, one great advantage of such institutions is, that persons are instructed how to avoid dangers, and how to remedy them when they occur; and by the dissemination of such useful knowledge, many accidents might be prevented, or speedily remedied, with but little trouble or expence.

It is necessary, however, to remark, that the prevention of accidents depends much upon the establishment of a good police, both in towns and in the country, which is not so much attend-

ed to in these kingdoms, as it ought to be. The magistrates ought to be authorised, *and required*, to remove all nuisances in streets; and in the cautions recommended by the Northamptonshire Preservative Society, some particulars are mentioned, which ought to be enforced by law; for instance, filling up holes in any ford or bathing-place; and railing, filling, or sloping off pits in dangerous places. The establishment of a good police, would in these, and in other respects, be productive of the most advantageous consequences, and would save the lives of numbers every year.

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#### ON THE MEDICINAL PROPERTIES OF CYDER.

Cyder, as is well known, is the juice of apples made spirituous by fermentation; they gather the apples in Autumn, because they are then ripe enough: they grind them in a mill, and pressing the juice out of them, they leave the same to ferment in hogs-heads.

The fermentation, that happens to the juice of apples, is like that of must; the essential salt of the juice of apples, as well as that of must, dissolves, attenuates, and rarifies the oily parts that withstand its motion, and makes them spirituous. It causes a kind of swelling then in the liquor, which proceeds from the operation of the essential salts upon the oily parts, and the resistance made by the same oily parts: this swelling ceases when the oily parts are wholly attenuated, and that the tartarous and gross parts have been precipitated into the bottom of the vessels.

When the juice of apples has not been well purified, it soon corrupts; and the reason is, because the dregs which remain mixed with the liquor are small pieces of the apples, which are as subject to rot as the apples themselves, and gives the cyder an unpleasant rotten taste. There are many ways used to purify the same, and hinder its corruption: some use water-glue dissolved in wine, and when they are afraid of its growing sour, they put mustard into it. Others draw off that which is clear, into earthen or glass bottles well corked, and thereby separate it from the dregs, or gross matters that are in the cask, which, by reason of the large quantity of them, do not a little help to spoil it.

We have already said, that the best apples for cyder are those which have a harsh and bitter taste; and the reason is, because they contain a great deal of essential salt, that is proper to divide the oily parts from the matter now spoken of. Moreover, these apples supply the cyder with a sufficient quantity of tartarous

parts, to prevent the spirits evaporating; and hence it is, that this cyder is stronger and more pungent, and will keep the longer: on the contrary, that made of common apples is sweet and quickly dies; because there is not essential salt enough in these apples, for exciting a complete fermentation in the juice, nor tartarous part to prevent the evaporation of the spirit.

Cyder is a good and wholesome liquor enough, provided it be used with moderation; and it may be said, that in general it is better for health than wine, because its spirits are not so impetuous, nor so much agitated, as those of wine; and are besides detained and moderated by a great quantity of viscous phlegm, which still contributes to make this liquor moistening and cooling. We know by experience, that most of those who drink nothing but this liquor are stronger, and look much better than those that drink wine; of which my Lord Bacon gives us a notable example; he mentions eight old people, some of whom were near a hundred years old, and others were an hundred and upwards. These old people, says he, had drank nothing else but cyder all their life time, and were so strong at this age, that they danced and hopped about like young men.

Cyder drank to excess doth not intoxicate so soon as wine, but the drunkenness caused by it lasts longer, because its spirit conveys along with it into the brain a great many viscous particles, which hinder the sudden dissipation thereof; these viscosities dispersing themselves afterwards, into all the substance of the brain, stop the channels of the nerves, and oppress and bear down the animal spirits, in such a manner, that they require a good deal of time to bring them to themselves again, and to drive away that which detained them in a kind of repose, and inactivity: and hence it is that men become so sleepy upon a drunken bout.

They also let the gross substance of the apples ferment in water, of which they make a moistening and cooling liquor, commonly called small cyder. It will not intoxicate, and is what the poor people of Herefordshire, and the adjoining counties, and also in Normandy, make their common drink.

They make of the juice of pears, that has been extracted and fermented, a kind of cyder or vinous liquor called Perry; which in colour and taste is like white wine: bitter and harsh pears are best for this purpose. As the same things happen in the fermentation of it, which does in that of the juice of apples, and as perry has very near the same virtues as cyder, we shall not write a particular chapter upon it.

A great many other spirituous liquors may be made of the fermented juices of several fruits; but the greatest part of these



liquours never become so spirituous as wine and cyder, and will not keep so long.

They extract a juice from quinces which, after it has fermented, becomes vinous. It fortifies the stomach, works by urine, is good for the cholic, spitting of blood, dysenteries, and qualifies the motion of sharp and bilious humours, which cause evacuations upwards and downwards. As this liquor soon grows sour and decays they mix honey, sugar, or some such thing with it, that it may keep the longer.

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#### TIPSYNESS, A POWERFUL REMEDY FOR MORTIFICATION.

When mortification makes its appearance in any part of the body, it is always considered as a fatal symptom, and the immediate forerunner of death. Now, if we can show you a remedy which may arrest the fatal termination, we shall consider ourselves doing an important service to the public, as well as to the medical profession, the greater part of whom are unacquainted with what we are now going to disclose.

In all cases of mortification, the black colour of the parts mortified shows the loss of the active and living principle, or of the spirit which supplied health and vigour. If then we can by any means supply this spirit, or a similar one artificially, we shall so far prevent the death of the parts, or in other words the mortification. Now we have fortunately for this purpose the powerful agency of wine or spirits, by which we can increase the flow of animal spirits, and the life and activity of all parts of the body.

Accordingly, in all cases where mortification shows itself, either in bad fevers, or from accidental wounds, or bruises, we advise that the patient have immediately administered every quarter of an hour, as much wine, or strong punch, as it may seem advisable in his circumstances to give, till you force him into a renewed state of life, and banish the mortification. We have the satisfaction to know that we recommend this on experience, and not on theory, as we shall now show you.

*Cases cured.*—By an accident in a mine, two men had their legs dreadfully bruised, so that it was considered impossible to preserve their lives without cutting them off. One of the men consented to have his leg cut off, and the other refused peremptorily. The operation was performed on the first, and the third day after he died of locked jaw, which often happens from wounds. The man who would not part with his leg, was soon seized with alarming mortification. The shattered leg became blue, purple, livid, and black; and as the substance of it began to dissolve, the watery parts bulged out the skin into numerous

yellow blisters, as for the most part happens in mortification. At the same time his pulse was so low that it could not be felt, his eyes sunk into their sockets, and his breathing was barely perceptible. In fact, he might have almost been considered as dead, so low were his powers of life reduced.

In this apparently hopeless state, a glass of port wine was ordered for him every ten minutes; and in the course of two hours his pulse had risen, and his eyes became brighter. Before nine hours from the first glass of wine, the dying man was actually singing and merry, and but for his shattered leg, we verily believe he would have got up to dance, although he was over sixty years of age. As soon as the spirit was found to take effect in this way, the quantity was gradually diminished to a glass every half hour, and at last to a glass every two hours. For nearly two whole weeks, this old man lived almost entirely upon the port wine and a little beef tea; the mortification disappeared, the splintered pieces of bone came away through the wounds in his leg, and in two months he was able to walk.

2. A child, a year and a half old, had a very bad scarlet fever, and showed symptoms of inward mortification by a black mouth and tongue, foetid breath, and a sunk pulse. In all such cases, wine is the only anchor of hope. Port wine was procured, and lest it might be too strong, the spirit was partly burned out of it, though we think it would have been better to mix it with water. A tea-spoonful was given at short intervals, till it was evident that the spirit began to affect the little patient, whose eyes became brighter, and his mouth more moist and comfortable. After a few hours he fell asleep, and awakened in a fair state of recovery.

We could mention many more instances, and particularly that of an infant a few days old with mortification from a bad thrush, which was cured by wine, but these we consider to be quite sufficient to prove that tipsyness is a very powerful means of recovery, in hopeless states of mortification, and we cannot too strongly recommend it.

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#### ON THE IMPATIENCE OF INVALIDS.

There is no mistake more fatal in the cure of chronical distempers, incident to the weak and tender, than the vain and unjust expectation they entertain of a sudden and quick cure, or even of a sensible relief. This, with their inconstancy, and impatience of being confined in their appetites, makes them either throw off all remedies and restraints in despair, and give themselves up to an habitual indulgence in all those things that

brought on or exasperated the distemper, or run about changing from doctor to doctor, till they end with a quack, or die under the hands of a mountebank, and are fooled out of their lives and money at once. It is surprizing that reasonable men can imagine, that in any small time, any possible methods or medicines should cure, or even sensibly relieve a distemper, that perhaps was brought with them into the world, and interwoven with the principles of their being; or, at least, may have been ten or twenty years in breeding, by excesses, or an indiscreet regimen. I know no fitter similitude of the case, than an annual income of an estate just sufficient to keep one in decent necessities, and due plenty and cleanliness. If one that has such an estate run out every year, for ten or twenty years, and then set about to retrieve, before he be come to starving or a gaol, would we not count him mad, if he should imagine, by retrenching, management, or saving, even joining to those day-labour, that a few months or years would recover all, and bring his estate to its first condition? No! he must labour, abstain, and manage for several years; and the time required will be always in a proportion compounded of the rate of his former expences, and his present saving. That is, if his expences were but small, and his savings great, the time will be the shorter, in respect of the time he continued his over spending. If he gives over saving, he must at last most certainly starve or go to gaol; and if he begins to save in due time, he will certainly retrieve all; but the whole consists in labour and saving for a due time. Excesses, and an undue regimen, is running out of one's health; which, without a proper remedy, as labour and abstinence, will necessarily bring a man to diseases or death. And these must be continued a time proportioned to the greatness of the excesses, with regard to the labour and abstinence. Most chronical distempers have, for their parents, corrupted fluids and broken solids, as has been shewn.

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#### MR. ABERNETHY'S CURE FOR DISEASES OF THE NOSE.

That diseases of the nose may be caused or aggravated by irritation arising from the stomach is a proposition which will, I think, be readily granted. Indeed it seems surprizing that the operation of this cause has been so little adverted to in books of surgery; since the phenomena which prove the fact are so well known. Are the monstrous noses, caused by excessive drinking of vinous and spirituous liquors, to be otherwise accounted for, than by irritation arising from the stomach; and do not worms in children cause a teasing sensation in the extremity of the nose?



I have seen, in private practice, several cases of irritation and swelling of the end of the nose, in some instances accompanied with small ulcerations of the pituitary membrane. In these cases the skin over the nose, which was tumid, became rough and discoloured; the middle of the discoloured part became sound; whilst the circumference retained its morbid actions, the disease there spread in a small degree. In these cases the tongue was furred; and there were evident indications of disorder in the stomach and bowels. The disease was checked, and cured, by attention to this disorder. I was strongly impressed with the opinion, that if these cases had been neglected, they would have terminated in that herpetic ulceration, which so often affects the end of the nose. I have also seen several instances of that herpetic ulceration in its confirmed state more materially benefited by medical attention to correct the disorder of the digestive organs than by any local application; and I feel confident that it may be frequently cured by such endeavours.

#### *Fætid Ulcer of the Nose.*

I have observed, in all cases of that noisome and intractable disease, ozæna, which have come under my care lately, that the stomach and bowels have been disordered; and more benefit has been obtained by endeavouring to bring these organs into a healthy state, than by all the local applications which had been previously tried. I stated to a medical friend my opinions respecting one patient, who came from the country, and begged to know the effect of the treatment which I had proposed. He informed me, after some months, that he had not been able to succeed in correcting the visceral disorder; and after relating the means which had been used, he adds, "the patient was now attacked with a bilious disorder, to which she had formerly been subject, and for which I gave her six grains of calomel in a bolus, which soon relieved her. During this attack the nose seemed well: there was no fætor in the discharge, and she recovered her sense of smelling." However, the disease returned afterwards as before.

#### *Polypi of the Nose.*

I have known several instances of persons who have for a long time been subject to polypi of the nose, in which the polypi ceased to grow after some attention had been paid to correct a disorder of the digestive organs.

In further confirmation of the opinion, that diseases of the nose depend much upon the state of the stomach, I shall mention the case of a woman, who had a disease of the nose which I expected would, at least, prove very tedious and very trouble-

some, but which got well speedily under simple dressings, in consequence, as it appeared, from the effect of internal medicines.

*Case.*—The patient was between thirty and forty years of age, had a furred tongue, bowels alternately costive and lax, and the discharges discoloured. An enlargement of the left ala nasi, caused by a great thickening of the parts covering and lining the cartilage, had gradually taken place. The skin was discoloured, and an ulcer, about the size of a sixpence, had formed on the under surface of the ala. The sore was deep, with a sloughing surface, and uneven and spreading edges. Spermaceti cerate was employed as a dressing; and the external skin was frequently bathed with Goulard's wash. She was ordered to take internally five grains of rhubarb an hour before dinner, five grains of the pil. hydrarg. every second night, and the infusion of gentian with senna occasionally. The sore ceased to spread, the swelling gradually subsided, and all diseased appearances were removed in the course of a month. The patient also found her health considerably amended.

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#### ON THE TREATMENT OF WINTER COUGH.

The cough on its commencement is generally dry, and not unfrequently attended with a sense of oppression, or spasmodic stricture about the upper part of the windpipe, resembling asthma; particularly when the membrane of the cavity of the larynx is in a state of inflammatory excitement. The irritated membrane, in a day or two, secretes a considerable quantity of mucus, which, on being expectorated, affords considerable relief: after which, the paroxysm of coughing and pain is only in proportion to the quantity and tenacity of mucus, *i.e.* as soon as the windpipe and its ramifications are cleared, the paroxysm ceases, and the respiration becomes comparatively easy.

The object in this species of cough is clearly to reduce the irritation of the internal lining of the windpipe, &c. and to keep it in a quiet state, so that it may be unsusceptible of the action of unfriendly vicissitudes in the air. To those who are aware of the effects of constipation, *viz.* undue determination of blood to the head, distention of blood-vessels of the chest, &c., the importance of keeping up the peristaltic motion of the intestinal canal must be obvious. Those who are subject to this cough, are well satisfied of the advantage of an aperient medicine occasionally, to relieve the bowels (*i.e.* when the vessels of the lungs or brain are evidently overloaded,) and of taking a small dose *regularly* every day, to obviate costiveness, from generally

finding confined bowels to precede a recurrence of the complaint.

Although an aperient medicine, by promoting the circulation of blood in the viscera of the belly and in the lower extremities, and occasioning a determination to them of nervous fluid, generally succeeds in quieting the membrane, and removing congestion of the blood-vessels of the lungs, so as to prevent a recurrence of cough, it is good practice to add to it such articles that directly allay irritation, and occasion a healthy or mild secretion of the membrane ; as the following composition :—

Take of alkaline extract of jalap half a drachm.  
 extract of hedge hyssop, one scruple ;  
 gum ammoniac, half a drachm.

Mix, and divide into twelve pills.

Two or three to be taken every night at bed-time, or two twice a day, so as to produce one or two alvine evacuations daily.

If the skin should be hot and dry, or if it should not properly perform its office (perspiration), five or eight grains of ipecacuan powder may be added to the above mass.

For the purpose of emptying the intestinal canal, when the state of the head or chest renders it necessary, two or three of the following pills may be taken :—

Take of alkaline extract of jalap, one drachm ;  
 compound extract of colocynth, half a drachm.

Mix, and divide into twenty pills.

As auxiliaries to this treatment, we may particularly notice the application of a stimulating plaster over the breast bone (as the camphorated Burgundy pitch), flannel next the skin, and the occasional use of the warm vapour bath when the skin is inactive.

When the system of blood-vessels is in a state of plenitude, or when coughing produces giddiness, confusion of mind, or pain in the head, abstraction of blood from a vein of an arm will be proper ; and, in case of pain in the chest, it will be prudent to apply a blister between the shoulders, or over the seat of pain. When a person who has been subject to this species of cough many years has arrived at the age of fifty, such changes often take place in the substance of the lungs (as formation of peculiar small tubercles of an indolent nature, or ossifications of blood-vessels), which tend to impede the circulation of the blood through them. The distention or congestion of blood-vessels, which ensues, gives the patient the idea that the air-vessels are clogged by phlegm, and that they should experience considerable relief if they could freely expec-



torate. In such cases, an emetic generally affords considerable relief, by bringing the diaphragm, and other muscles concerned in conveying air from the lungs, so violently into action, as to compress the lungs, and mechanically to force the blood through the vessels, and convey the mucus that may be lodged in the small air-vessels into the bronchiæ, or the windpipe, when it is easily expectorated. For this purpose, the following draught (emetic) may be administered:—

Take of ipecacuan powder, one scruple ;  
vinegar of squills, one drachm ;  
water, one ounce.—Mix.

The following mixture, in the dose of two or three table-spoonfuls two or three times a day, we have found very beneficial in this stage of habitual cough:—

Take of gum ammoniac emulsion, six ounces ;  
tincture of lupulin, three drachms ;  
tincture of squills, three drachms ;  
spirit of sal volatile, three drachms ;  
paregoric elixir, four drachms.—Mix.

If the patient be troubled with symptoms of indigestion, particularly flatulence and loss of appetite, the emulsion of gum ammoniac may be made with an infusion of cascarilla bark, or of horehound. The free inhalation of the vapour of boiling tar is often very beneficial when the vessels of the lungs are overloaded from debility, and when there is a deficiency of expectoration. It not only removes congestion of blood-vessels, by stimulating the pulmonary artery, &c., but increases the secretion of mucus from the membrane of the windpipe, and facilitates expectoration. That it may produce these effects, a deep inspiration should be made with it, in order to expose as much of the internal surface of the air-vessels and cells to its action as the patient is capable of doing. Another advantage arising from this remedy is, that it allays the irritation attendant on superficial ulceration in the membrane of the windpipe, the larynx, bronchial branches, &c., which very often takes place during the progress of the cough, and is a common cause of its severity and continuance. During this stage it is of very great importance not only to obviate costiveness, but to keep up the secretion of the kidneys, in order to carry off the redundancy of serum in the blood, which would otherwise be effused in the cavity of the chest, belly, or cellular substance of the extremities, and hasten the last stage.

With the view of obviating costiveness, one, two, or three of the following pills may be taken once or twice a day, so as to produce one fecal evacuation daily:—

Take of alkaline extract of jalap, one drachm ;  
 oil of juniper berries, eight drops ;  
 rhubarb powder, sufficient to form a mass.

To be divided into middle-sized pills.

If the kidneys, during the use of these remedies, should not perform their office, the following mixture may be substituted for that of the gum ammoniac emulsion :—

Take of infusion of buchu leaves, six ounces ;  
 oxymel of squills, six drachms ;  
 sweet spirit of nitre, three drachms ;  
 paregoric elixir, four drachms.—Mix.

If the stomach be irritable, the appetite bad, or if the medicine should excite nausea, a drachm of gum ammoniac and half a drachm of the dilute sulphuric acid may be substituted for the oxymel of squills.

It not unfrequently happens, that in persons subject to this species of cough, nearly the whole of the membranes of the body are, like that of the windpipe, &c., preternaturally irritable. We have known the cough to alternate with irritation in the internal membrane of the urethra, bladder and rectum, and for the smallest dose of ipecacuan, calomel or squills, to excite vomiting and to disturb the bowels ; and it is not uncommon to meet with habitual cough, attended with purging. In such cases it would be highly improper to employ ipecacuan, squills, or any remedy that is likely to disorder the stomach or bowels, because they do not produce a deviation in favour of the affection of the lungs, but on the contrary aggravate it. In such constitutions we have found the following mixture, in the dose of a small wine-glassful three or four times a day, to prove very beneficial in allaying irritation of the windpipe, and in quieting the bowels :—

Take of bitter almond emulsion, six ounces ;  
 compound tragacanth powder, three drachms ;  
 prepared chalk, one drachm ;  
 gum ammoniac, two scruples ;  
 liquor of subcarbonate of potass, one drachm ;  
 extract of lettuce, a scruple ;  
 simple syrup, half an ounce.—Mix.

In this stage of the disease, it is common for such an afflux of blood to the brain to take place during coughing, as to occasion giddiness, headache, and a general sense of lassitude. In such cases, although the legs are affected with œdematous swelling, the pulse weak, and the body apparently in a debilitated state it is often necessary to take a few ounces of blood from a

vein, in order to prevent mischief in the brain; and after such abstraction, it is very common for the patient to experience a considerable accession of strength, an abatement of cough, freedom of breathing, and facility of expectoration, principally from relieving the brain (the vital spring of the body) from the pressure of over-distended vessels. The propriety of bleeding, when the general health has so far given way to the disease, the circulation in the extremities become very languid, and the cellular substance loaded with serum, is perhaps one of the nicest points to determine that can occur in the practice of medicine; for if effusion of serum has taken place, either into the cellular substance of the lungs, the pericardium, or the cavity of the chest, the loss of blood might in a few hours terminate life.

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#### OF THE QUALITIES OF THE AIR, AND THEIR EFFECTS ON HEALTH.

The qualities of the air depend on its being hot or cold, dry or moist, light or heavy, inland or maritime, breathed in the day or in the night. It is well known what important effects these various circumstances produce on the health of the human body.

##### *Hot Air.*

The effects of hot air will be easily understood, if we consider for a moment, that the air either raises or reduces to its own temperature, those bodies which it surrounds or penetrates. When we see indeed, after the colds of Winter, how rapidly the heat of Summer revives all nature, making the plants to grow, the trees to blossom, and every animal to rejoice, we cannot suppose that man should be the only exception. But its principal effects, in regard to the human species, result from this, that the quantity of perspiration, sensible and insensible, is, in a great measure, regulated by the degree of heat applied to the human body. It is supposed that in England, at an average of the whole year, perspiration scarcely equals all the other excretions, though in Summer it is nearly double to that of Winter; whereas, in the air of Padua, during the whole year, the perspiration is supposed to be, to the other excretions, as five to three, and in tropical climates, it is probably still greater, especially to the natives of Europe.

Though the human body can bear considerable variations of temperature, yet the heat in the atmosphere most congenial to the human frame, is from 50 to 70 of Fahrenheit. That temperature has generally prevailed in the countries most famed



for intellectual exertion, and strength both of body and mind. When that proportion is much exceeded, the fibres are lengthened and relaxed, particularly in the young and growing, and hence proceeds the sensation of faintishness and debility in a hot day. It is believed that men cannot live long in an air much hotter than their own bodies, the average of which is calculated in children at  $90^{\circ}$  and in adult persons at  $98^{\circ}$ , though both will bear a more violent heat for a short period of time.

When the air is extremely hot, by promoting perspiration, it dissipates the thinner, watery, and volatile parts of the blood, and by thickening that source of nourishment and life, lays a foundation for many disorders, more especially fevers, of a bilious, putrid, ardent, and malignant nature. Hence, an extremely hot climate is far from being wholesome.

#### *Cold Air.*

It is evident that cold must have effects on the human body, directly opposite to those of heat. Cold air braces the fibres, not only by its condensing quality, but by rendering the air drier. By bracing the fibres also, and more strongly condensing the fluids, it produces that strength and activity, which is so sensibly felt in clear frosty weather, when the cold is not too intense. On the other hand, by contracting the fibres of the skin, and cooling the blood too much in those vessels which are most exposed to the air, some of the grosser parts, and most acrid or saline particles of the perspirable matter, which would evaporate in warm weather, are retained in cold, and produce coughs, scurvy, and other disorders to which cold countries are liable. It is strongly in their favour, however, that such regions are frequently affected by wind; hence the air is much more purified than in hot climates.

#### *Moist Air.*

It has been well observed, that a little more or less of moisture in the air can be of little importance to man, whose body is composed in a great degree of fluids, whose blood and juices are so watery, and who can swallow quantities of water and weak liquors daily, without inconvenience. Air, though moderately moist, therefore, can have no ill effect on the constitution, though if it is saturated with moisture, it is unwholesome. Moist weather, indeed, even when accompanied by cold, is unfavourable to health, as is often fatally experienced by delicate people, during the fogs of London and Paris; but when it is accompanied by heat, it is still more prejudicial. Hence the great mortality, during the hot season, at Batavia, and in some parts of America. When the air is impregnated with vapours

from putrid marshes, it is found pernicious, not from its moisture, but its putridity.

### *Dry Air.*

When the air is dry, it contains a number of saline and other particles, which, by rain or moisture, might have been carried down to the surface of the earth. It also imbibes animal and vegetable effluvia, which have a considerable influence on the body. By great dryness in the air, the very texture and situation of the pores of the skin may be altered. A dry air, if not too warm, is both agreeable and healthy, but when accompanied with great heat, is attended with the most fatal consequences, both to animals and vegetables. Even in England it has been observed, that extremely dry seasons have been found more dangerous to human bodies than wet.

Arbuthnot says great droughts have always been found noxious to the human body. Previous to the destructive epidemical distempers which took place in the latter end of the year 1732, and beginning of 1733, there was a great drought in England, and in the greatest part of Europe, which ultimately proved extremely fatal to all the places affected by it. Great droughts exert their effects after the surface of the earth is again opened by moisture, and the perspiration of the ground, which was long suppressed, is suddenly restored. It is probable that the earth then emits several new effluvia, hurtful to human bodies; and this appeared to be the case, by the thick and stinking fogs which succeeded the rain that had fallen before. Dr. Bisset remarks, that the inhabitants of places on the sea coast are less subject to those diseases which generally result from an exceeding hot and dry Summer, than those of inland towns. This is a circumstance much in favour of maritime situations.

### *Light Air.*

It is found by experience, that the lightness of air, on the tops of high mountains, is unfavourable to respiration. Persons in these elevated situations are obliged to take breath oftener than in the lower regions; and are sometimes so violently affected as to throw up blood, by the straining which the rarity of the atmosphere occasions. Lord Bacon says, when certain travellers mounted to the top of Olympus, the air was so thin that they were obliged to hold sponges, dipped in vinegar and water, to their noses and mouths. Also, that the air on the top of Teneriffe is so sharp as to cause violent pains in the eyes; and so thin and light, as to make many vomit.

A certain portion of the pressure of the atmosphere, being taken off the veins or blood-vessels, they expand and swell, by

which a shortness of breath, and a spitting of blood are occasioned. When fermented liquors are carried in bottles to that height, the air contained in the liquor rarifies as much as the air without, by which means the bottles are burst. But though light air, when carried to an extreme, is so highly prejudicial, yet, in moderation, it may be of use; and hence the air of mountainous districts, is found to be of service in several disorders. In general, however, the air of lofty mountains is of too light and subtile a nature; and though it may be calculated for the eagle, and other descriptions of birds, yet it does not, in general, agree with the constitution of man.

#### *Heavy Air.*

Air in some measure compressed, or rather heavy, if it be dry, is not unfavourable to the human frame. It appears by authentic experiments, that animals live longer, when breathing a like quantity of compressed, than uncompressed air; and the weight of the atmosphere compresses the air in valleys, and champaign countries, and consequently renders such air better calculated to support great numbers of inhabitants. It must also contain, for its bulk, a greater quantity of oxygen, or vital air.

Dr. C. Harrison, of Horncastle, has found that the air of the fens or marshes of Lincolnshire, is not favourable to the production of pulmonary consumption. Though that scourge of this island is reported to destroy annually such numbers of its inhabitants, yet in the fenny districts, it is rarely to be met with; whereas, in the high-lying divisions of the county, (*the wolds*), where the air is less moist and bland, that disorder, originating in scrofula, is much more frequent. He further found, in a case or two of the kind which he adduces, that a removal from the high to the lower fenny part of the county had repeatedly and uniformly the best effects. Indeed wherever there is a spitting of blood, it is a sign that the situation of the place is too high, and the air too light. The proper plan to pursue, therefore, is, to fly to a flat or deep country, where the air is heavy. The weight of that sort of air must prevent the vessels from being swelled to any improper size; and the spitting of blood, which originated from the extension, must be removed.

#### *Inland Air.*

The air of inland districts must have qualities very different from those on the sea-coast. In the interior parts of a country, the air must partake much of the qualities of the soil and of its productions. Much, also, must depend upon the state of its cultivation. Even countries naturally unwholesome, if cleared of wood, and rendered fertile, become immediately healthy. It



is also to be observed, that the central countries of great continents are colder, especially in Winter, than those that have the sea-air. Moseow, in the same latitude with Edinburgh, is much colder during the Winter months, though perhaps warmer in the Summer season.

Strother contends, that the midland counties in England are the most healthy, and less subject to a variety of weather. He observes, that when the easterly or westerly winds give rains in abundance to the coasts, yet the middle way, between sea and sea, has then been calm and dry; the clouds brought from either sea, drop before they come mid-way. The accounts which are given of the air of Cheltenham seem to justify these observations.

#### *Maritime Air.*

The nature of the air at sea is, in various respects, very different from that which is to be met with in the inland parts of the country. 1. Sea air is more humid, owing to the great quantity of vapour which is constantly arising from the surface of such an extent of water. 2. The air at sea is more frequently agitated, and storms are more violent, and continue longer there than at land. 3. In the same country, the air is found of very different temperatures, in regard to heat and cold, and possessing very different qualities; but, at sea, the air is more uniform, and less susceptible of variety. 4. The air at sea never stagnates, having no impediments to its course, from mountains, hills, or forests, and being continually agitated by the winds, currents, and the constant flux and reflux of the tides. 5. Sea air is warmer, more especially in the extreme cold of Winter, than the air which is incumbent on the earth: hence those who obtain a livelihood by collecting limpets, and other shell-fish, and who are constantly inhaling sea spray, are never affected with cough. 6. A portion of sea-salt is also generally raised by the spray, and perhaps by the vapour of the sea, which is found to be attended with rather beneficial effects. 7. Sea air, also, is not so liable as land air, to be deteriorated by the putrefaction of animal and of vegetable substances, the respiration of animals, the support of combustion, and exhalations of all descriptions.

#### *Night Air.*

This is, in general, more unwholesome than what is breathed in the day time; and, about sunset, it is particularly injurious, for then a greater quantity of dew falls than even at midnight.

## ON THE SIGNS OF HEALTH AND DISEASE IN CHILDREN.

It is an error to suppose that a great mystery hangs over the diseases of children. We are taught that it is difficult to recognise disease in children, because they cannot point out, in words, the seat of their complaints; but the observation is not a sound one. Children speak a much more plain language by their actions than adults do by their words. But this is not all? there are other circumstances, peculiar to children, which greatly facilitate the investigation of their diseases. An infant instantly and decidedly gives expression to the pain which he feels; an adult is so accustomed to bear pain, that unless the irritation, which is present in his constitution, produces well marked symptoms, he disregards his feelings; and thus diseases run on, until complicated, or even irreparable mischief is often the result.

An infant's diseases too, are simple; for his constitution is sound; whilst the complaints of adults are generally more or less complex, on account of the weak parts, which Celsus says, with the best observers, are to be found in every person's constitution. Moreover, an infant has no guile; its actions tell right on what it feels; for it is regardless of consequences; whilst an adult is often led to conceal a part of his complaint and be deceitful.

Many more circumstances might be adduced to show, that it is at least as practicable to discover the complaints of children as those of adults; but as these facts will naturally offer themselves for consideration in many other parts of these pages, it will not be necessary to enlarge further upon them here.

Ask an attentive mother whether she finds any difficulty in deciding when her child is ill: "Oh no," she will say, "his temper, his complexion, his every look shows it, even when the cause of illness is slight: and it is very true. The constitutions of children are highly susceptible of impressions, and the younger a child is, the more readily will his system be affected by the irritations which produce disease.

Let a child's bowels be disordered for the first time, and he becomes paler than usual; heat perhaps will follow; his tongue will be white; he will be heavy, and his temper will be changed for the worse. These are circumstances not to be overlooked, if even common attention be paid to a child's actions.

Let his bowels be habitually deranged, and the increase of symptoms will keep pace with the increase of irritation; the skin will be constantly paler and of a dirty hue; the eye will be sunken, and surrounded by a dark line; the breath will have an

unpleasant smell; the tongue will be white and dry; fever will occur at intervals; the child will become emaciated, and his nights will be restless and his days fretful.

If a child be affected by symptoms like these, it will be apparent that some irritating cause is acting on his system; and by a little closer attention, the part on which that cause is producing its effect, may, in general, be decided on with sufficient accuracy.

His stomach will be found to be more projecting than it ought to be, his evacuations will be unnatural; and further inquiry will generally show, that an improper diet has occasioned the illness in the first instance, and is still active in aggravating the existing symptoms.

The intensity of these deranged actions will mark, to a practised eye, the degree of the irritation; and the treatment necessarily grows out of a clear conception; first, of the degree of the illness; and secondly, of the part on which the irritation is acting with the greatest violence.

But it will be necessary now to revert to the first periods of infancy, and it will become apparent, how disorders arise from very slight and simple causes; how this disorder is aggravated, and leads slowly but certainly to the most dangerous diseases of children; how easily its very first and slightest symptoms may be detected, and it is hoped, how readily it may, in the majority of cases, be cured, and the consequent train of evils be averted.

And here too, the simplicity of character which marks the diseases of children will appear very plainly.

Little indeed can be learned from the appearance of a child during the first few weeks of its existence. Its complexion is not settled; neither is the round form of its limbs established: but then infants of that age are so seldom ill, except under very defective management, that this becomes of little importance.

After some time, however, the child improves; its limbs take on the rounded form, and its whole appearance announces that it is happy and in health. It sleeps soundly and almost constantly, and with its eyes lightly and accurately closed; it seldom cries; its limbs and body are convex, and become firm; it is not too fat, neither is it lean; its gestures are easy; its hands are very seldom raised above the mouth; it does not start nor smile in its sleep; its eyes are moderately bright; its skin is not wrinkled; its respiration is nearly Imperceptible; its secretions are natural; its bowels are moved two or three times



in the day, the excretion having the appearance of custard, and being discharged slowly as through a syringe; it has a vacant look of content; and lastly, it is easily pleased by the attentions which are bestowed on it. Symptoms like these sufficiently show that a child's sensations are agreeable, and the actions of its system going on in a healthy manner.

Any deviation from this state is a prelude to disease. Moral treatment, however, has some influence on the infant, even at this early period of existence. Infants under some nurses will lie down quietly when awake, and go to sleep without further interference; whilst under other nurses the same infants would probably require rocking, or at least would cry, if it were attempted to lay them down awake. This crying is not from disease, and may be easily distinguished from that which is. Infants cry too on being washed; but, even here, much may be done to prevent it by proper management; as may be seen very frequently, where children are attended by mothers or by observing nurses.

The cry of disease is very different from all this; and is moreover accompanied by other symptoms of illness, which are in general sufficiently unequivocal.

It is not necessary to give the reverse of the signs of health alluded to above, and say, this is disease; but it is of more importance to press on the reader, that any deviation from these signs should be strictly attended to, and that the welfare of children, both mental and bodily, mainly depends on that anxious and constant attention to their wants and feelings, which nothing but affection can give; and which therefore can seldom be found except in the breast of a mother. When mothers, indeed, do attend to their children with the same perseverance as the parents of the brute tribes watch over their young, it will behove the medical man to come to the charge of a child's health with a skilful eye, and a well-stored mind: for the constant concentration of a mother's powers of observation on her child's actions, will often point out to her that disorder is present, long before it is perceived by him; or in more severe cases, he will probably lose her confidence, by over-looking symptoms which are but too apparent to her. An instance of this kind occurred the other day. An only daughter was affected by the whooping-cough. She went on well for some time; but at last, the mother said she was ill. The medical attendant, a man of experience and observation, could not perceive it; but having a high opinion of the mother's powers of observation, he saw the child every day, and sedulously attended to its symptoms;

but in vain—he could not perceive that any bad symptoms were present. After the lapse of about a fortnight, however, decided indications of hydrocephalus occurred, and the child died in two days from that time. This practitioner blamed himself, and with good reason, for his want of discrimination in this case; as the slight symptoms which preceded the fatal attack and which probably precede the attack of almost all diseases, had undoubtedly existed from the time of the mother's fears being first excited; and he could not but feel that she had seen what he had omitted to observe.

A medical friend of the author's relates that he once witnessed a similar mistake. A lady said that her child was threatened with water in the head; the medical man overlooked it; but, as in the former case, the mother founded her opinion on an observance of some small deviations from healthy action, which hourly attention had enabled her to perceive; and she was right. She said, that the child was fretful and yet so sleepy.

From these two symptoms she deduced that the impending disease was hydrocephalus; and it was a most acute observation; for, as Dr. Armstrong says, nothing marks the threatening of hydrocephalus more than a combination of fretfulness and heaviness.

No deviation from the signs of health in children should, as is said above, be allowed to pass unnoticed. Even an infant, does nothing without a reason, or rather without a cause: if he cry, it is either because he is irritated, or because he is ill; if he move his limbs or open his eyes, it is to make observations, or to obey some internal impulse which is supplied by the wants of the body; and therefore, if his actions express pain, or such a degree of increased irritation as may be considered to be leading on towards disease, the warning should not be unattended to; for infants, as has been hinted above, invariably tell the truth\*.

It is hoped that enough has been said to shew how interesting it is to observe the actions of children, even during the early period of infancy. Infants, however, are equally interesting in a moral point of view; and as in the course of these essays an explanation will be offered of the great influence which a proper moral treatment of children has in preserving their health, a few remarks on the early education of infants will form the subject of the next essay.

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\* Infants may, as a friend remarks, but children do not; indeed, as he says, they often lie most abominably; concealing their pains, and saying they are well, when they are evidently ill, only because they dislike physic. But at present, infancy, and not childhood, is the subject for discussion.

## SCROFULOUS DISEASE OF THE LUNGS.

In the first stage of this affection of the lungs, when the tubercles are few, it will be impossible to ascertain with any degree of certainty that they exist. When, however, they are numerous, they generally occasion what is called shortness of breath, and a frequent disposition to sigh, as if to overcome the oppression produced by the weight and pressure of the tubercles on the more minute bronchial ramifications. Although there is that delicate state of health which generally attends all serofulous diseases, there is not commonly any symptom particularly indicating this affection of the lungs. At the commencement of the second or inflammatory stage, or when the consolidating process is going on, the attention is first attracted to the complaint by an occasional, short, hacking cough, attended by a sense of uneasiness, or pain in some part of the chest; there is also an inability to completely expand the thorax, or the breath cannot be drawn in as deep as usual, and every attempt is accompanied with a kind of catch. At first the pain is only felt during voluntary inspirations, but subsequently it becomes constant, and is fixed to particular spots. As the disease advances, not only the pain increases, but the health also materially suffers; indeed, during the whole of this stage, the pulse is generally quicker than natural, and there is often a species of remittent fever. The patients also complain of frequent pain in the lower part of the back, and of listlessness and weakness, and are very restless at night; the cough too is generally much increased, and is always produced by every forcible inspiration, and at such times the pain is very acute. The cough at this period is most frequently dry, but sometimes there is an expectoration of a glary mucous. This state often exists for a very long time before suppuration commences, and sometimes at first the formation of matter is so small that there are no decided symptoms produced, and altogether there is so much obscurity that it cannot be readily ascertained.

The appearance of the expectoration at this stage is a very deceptive sign, as it is always mixed with the secretion of the mucous membrane of the bronchial tubes, which itself sometimes amounts to complete purulent matter, while the discharge from the abscess is generally principally composed of matter very different from true pus, so that what is expectorated always derives much of its character from the secretion of the mucous membrane of the bronchia, and indeed I believe the greater part of what is continually expectorated is often from this source. Ne-



vertheless the irritation excited by the discharge from the abscess in these cases may possibly be the first, or at least an additional cause of that morbid condition of the mucous membrane which occasions the purulent secretion, though it is probable that the inflammatory condition of the mucous membrane is often gradually propagated from the original seat of the disease. That such a state of the mucous membrane may exist is proved by dissection, as we often meet with cases which were attended by a copious expectoration during life, and yet on examination after death there is found no abscess or collection of matter, or perhaps only one or two small abscesses, but such a large secretion of pus from the membrane of the bronchia, that large quantities of it may be squeezed out of every part of the lung. Every surgeon, who cultivates morbid anatomy, must be familiar with such cases. The expectoration which accompanies them during life is often even greater than in cases in which abscesses successively form, till the lungs are extensively destroyed. It is probable also, that such a state of the mucous membrane may sometimes materially assist in producing that great general irritation which always accompanies these cases. That the cause is equal to the effect must be admitted, as we so often witness such great constitutional disturbance occasioned by inflammation of the mucous membrane of the eye, and of the urethra. That, however, in common cases of consumption from tubercles, there is abundant cause of constitutional irritation in the successive formation of abscesses cannot be denied, and particularly when we consider that, while suppuration is complete in one part, the inflammatory stage may be at its height in another, and in others it may be only commencing. These circumstances also account for the mixed nature of the attendant symptoms—for the co-existence of symptoms of great general irritation and debility, and of local pain and other marks of active disease.

The cough and difficulty of breathing which accompany the advanced stage of this complaint are most distressing; but the difficulty of breathing is often more so than the cough. It sometimes happens that large abscesses form suddenly, almost without any previous indication, and yet, on dissection after death, the lungs are found extensively tuberculated, producing the greatest difficulty in respiration, and the highest degree of constitutional irritation. I had the opportunities of witnessing two such cases, both of which were mistaken for sudden attacks of pneumonia, and the patients were literally bled to death. One died on the seventh, and the other on the tenth day after the attack. In both there was a copious expectoration of matter before death; and on dissection, the lungs of both were found tuberculated. In one

case, a great part of one of the lobes of the right lung was consolidated, and in its substance two large abscesses had formed. In the other, the same thing had taken place, but there was only one abscess. From the appearances on dissection, and from the excessive oppression and difficulty of breathing which so suddenly came on, and from the little relief that was afforded by the bleedings, as well as from the great relief that was experienced directly expectoration commenced, there can be no doubt about the true nature of these cases, and that the urgent symptoms were not produced by acute inflammation, but by the confinement of the contents of the abscesses which had gradually formed and particularly as in the one case in which a second abscess formed after excessive bleeding, the most severe symptoms were re-produced, and continued for several hours, until a large quantity of matter was expectorated.

Although, at an early period of the suppurative stage, the appearance of the matter will seldom enable us to judge accurately of the nature of the disease, still, at a more advanced period, it is an unerring index. It is impossible accurately to describe it, but I may observe, that it seems as if composed of mucus, pus, and a curdy matter, of a whitish, green, or yellow colour. Sometimes it is streaked with blood, but it seldom happens that this is constantly the case. The last stage of a consumption is so clearly evinced by the great shortness of breath, the progressively increasing debility, the alternate chills and heats, the profuse perspirations, the excessive quickness of pulse, and the swelling of the ankles, accompanied by cough and copious expectoration, that it can never be mistaken.

From the nature of the disease, it would appear that the only remedy from which there is any chance of deriving much benefit, is counter-irritation, and that this should be made without producing additional disturbance to the general health. Perpetual blisters, therefore, can seldom be a proper mode of making counter-irritation, as they always occasion so much pain; and the best mode of making it appears to me to be by issues, but they should be much larger than they are commonly made, and this they may be without exciting any constitutional disorder. It would, however, be absurd in the last stage of a consumption to attempt to remove the disease; but I am very much mistaken if, at less advanced stages, I have not seen issues, conjoined with proper constitutional treatment, completely remove all disposition to the disease; at least I am certain that, from the use of such means, I have seen patients get fat and strong, who have previously been progressively becoming more and more emaciated, having at the same time pain in the chest, great difficulty

of breathing, cough, expectoration of purulent-looking matter, and continual quickness of pulse.

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#### BEAUTY WASH FOR THE EYES.

As we mean to devote a portion of our work to the modes of improving and preserving beauty as well as health; and as the eyes are one of the most prominent features of beauty, we shall begin by telling you how to strengthen weak eyes, and to brighten their faded lustre, or their morning stiffness or smartings. For this purpose, it will first be necessary for you to study with particular attention what we have said about the bowels; for so long as they are out of order, and so long as your blood is not properly nourished, it would be folly to expect that either the eyes, the cheeks, or the lips, should look fresh and healthy. Well then, after your bowels have been brought into proper order, if your eyes still continue to feel weak, clouded, muddy, or as if sand had got into them, we recommend the following

#### *Superior Eye-Water.*

Take four ounces of eye-bright tea, cold,  
 sixty drops of tincture of opium,  
 three tea-spoonfuls of *pure* acetated  
 spirit of ammonia.

Mix, and apply it to the eye by means of a bit of fine old linen rag; so as to let some get within the eye-lid.—Be sure that the spirit of ammonia is genuine.

Cold water dashed about the forehead and temples, or poured over the whole head, every morning on coming out of bed, is also one of the best things for strengthening and brightening the eyes.

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#### SHAMEFUL PARISH DOCTORING.

The richest man in England may, by misfortune, become a beggar, may come on the parish, or be reduced to the work-house. Now, though the fact cannot be disputed, as it occurs every day, yet the rich do not attend as they ought to the rights of the poor, in some of the most important circumstances of life. They never fancy that it may be their lot to be farmed out like cattle to a grazier or a farrier, while they are farming out the parish poor to be fed and doctored, that is, in plain English, to be first starved, or dieted into disease, and then to be drugged to death by the parish Caleb Quotem. This shameful practice loudly demands reform; and we call on all who are interested in it to ponder on the following facts, collected by



Dr. Kerrison, and published by authority of the Associated Apothecaries of England and Wales, though for a purpose very different from ours. The dates are a few years back, but this does not alter the facts.

*Parishes farmed out to Quacks and Apothecaries.*

Parish of Bognor, farmed at a very inadequate salary. The overseers, when it was not farmed, were very backward in signing orders, now they are equally profuse; and the Apothecaries, to avoid a loss, must, we infer, give them inferior drugs, or withhold them though necessary.

Parish of Brighton, usually farmed by ignorant unqualified men, who are neither able nor willing to give proper medical assistance to the poor. Mr. Batteock had only 60*l.*, and had to furnish both phials and medicine. There were sixty midwifery cases in one year! Eighty pounds would not pay more than half his expences.

Parish of Smallburgh, near Norwich, two united parishes, formerly under the care of three surgeons, farmed at 80*l.* by an ignorant and incompetent man. This is nothing, — an apprentice of this unlied cub of the pestle, farms about twenty parishes for 50*l.* He attended only one course of lectures at the Borough!

Parish of Stroud, Kent, farms out 250 poor people, at 27*l.*, that being the lowest tender. It was usually farmed at 60*l.*

Stourport, Worcestershire, farmed to the lowest bidder. The poor often die without help, rather than trust the parish doctor. A person, who calls himself Dr. Dodd, attends a large parish in the neighbourhood for 5*l.*

Heddingham, Essex, 1,500 poor farmed at 30*l.* which cannot pay for half the medicines.

St. Thomas's-street, Borough, the poor generally farmed like slaves in the West Indies, to the lowest bidder, without respect to the qualifications of the apothecary.

Mr. Timewell, of the Borough, knows a large parish farmed at 5*l.* a year, including medicine. The apothecary who farms it lives two miles off!

At Gainsborough, in consequence of a poor creature being nearly dead from medical neglect, the overseers were forced to give up the farming system.

At Mayfield, Sussex, the contract was reduced from 10*l.* to 5*l.* a-year, by competition of two apothecaries.

At Weymouth, an ignorant quack, who had been a barber and an innkeeper, farms the poor! Much quackery prevails in Weymouth, and consequently many deaths.

ADVICE TO YOUNG MOTHERS ON THE MANAGEMENT  
OF CHILDREN.

Nothing is more strange, though certainly founded in truth, than that few persons, even of liberal education, have nerve enough to act for themselves, when they happen to be placed in any situation different from the common routine of their previous life; especially when the action required has any connexion with their medical treatment. It never seems to occur to a patient to make use of reason and common sense, to obviate any trifling disagreeable—no, the doctor is generally applied to, while nature is entirely forgotten, though in all cases she ought to be the first in request. Nothing exemplifies our position more clearly than the situation of the young mother, left entirely to manage for and supply the wants of her infant. She is anxious and willing to make any sacrifice for its benefit, but from neglecting to follow the dictates of reason, trembles lest she commits an error, and often, from too great an indulgence of her fears, neglects the most common and obvious of her duties. In the article of food, or what is most proper for her to eat while a *nurse*, instead of following the dictates of her own feelings, she flies to those who are more experienced, who of course give her the result of their practice, which may be anything but congenial with her constitution or feelings. By one, certain articles of diet are recommended as indispensable; by another, they are condemned as improper, if not as positively injurious. Other substances are extolled in their turn; but unfortunately, these are forbidden by other advisers, and that with an earnestness that bids defiance to either argument or resistance. Perplexed by such discrepancies, she knows not what plan to pursue; and when she has become almost a prey to anxiety, some sensible friend lays down a rule which, as a general one, is the only one that should have been given at first; namely, to eat and drink such articles of diet as her former experience had proved did not disagree; and to pursue this plan, unless a farther experience should declare them to be improper or injurious to herself or child.

*Food best adapted for the Child.*

No advice, perhaps, can be more safe and judicious than this; for we have almost uniformly observed, that whatever food agreed with the mother was sure to do so with the child; therefore, such substances as are said to disturb the latter will almost always be found to have disagreed with the mother

previously. Nor is this of difficult explanation. Any substance with which the stomach is not familiar, or to which it is not entirely reconciled, will be either rejected altogether, or will be but incompletely digested—if it be but imperfectly assimilated, it will enter the system as ill elaborated chyle; and this necessarily will make a corresponding change in the quality of the milk. In this state it is received by the child; its stomach not being able to subdue it to a proper nourishment, flatulency is produced, or perhaps even vomiting, to the manifest injury of the infant.

Certain liquors, as ale, porter, beer, &c., certain substances, as cabbage, sweet potatoe, pickles, vinegar, &c., are all in their turn said to disagree with the child—that is, as we would insist, disagree with the mother; they should therefore be abandoned without hesitation for her own sake; for there the mischief begins; but there it will not stop, unless she have sufficient resolution to give them up; for her child will soon feel the effects of such irresolution, and how extensive these may become it may be impossible to say.

#### *Evil Effects of High Living.*

Serious mischief is oftentimes done by the mother attempting to remedy every temporary diminution of milk, by increasing the quantity of her food, or by imagining that some stimulating drink will answer this valuable end. Hence indigestion, fever, and sometimes a habit, is generated of too freely indulging in ardent spirit. This practice has for its excuse, that the milk fails because the woman is weak, owing to her not taking a sufficiency of nourishment; hence, too much feeding is indulged in; to remedy this supposed weakness—a task is now imposed upon the stomach it cannot perform, however healthy it may be; and indigestion must of course sooner or later be the consequence. Or owing to some trifling disturbance in the system, of a temporary kind, the secretion of milk may be for the moment suspended or diminished; an attempt is made to recall it by an increase of food, by which a slight inconvenience is converted into a permanent derangement of the system; or a fever of even a dangerous character may be generated. Or owing to a false theory or imperfect observation, it has been supposed that certain liquors have a control over the secretion of milk: and hence the too free use of certain combinations, in which ardent or fermented spirits too largely enter; thus, porter, ale, milk punch, &c., become the ordinary beverage of nurses, to the but too often destruction of their morals.



*Means of procuring a sufficient Secretion of Milk.*

We must not, however, be supposed to deny the influence of certain solid as well as fluid substances, upon the secretion of milk; this would be turning our eyes from reason as well as experience—for we well know, that unless the body be properly supported, there must soon be a diminution of milk. We only mean to insist, that it is the nutritious and not the stimulating part of diet that is subservient to the plentiful and healthful formation of this fluid. In proof of this we need only observe, that we have often been consulted upon the subject of the failure of milk, where an anxious mother herself or a hireling nurse was concerned, and been informed by them that they had tried every thing with a hope of improving it; such as rich victuals, porter, ale, beer, milk punch, &c., without success, or it was followed perhaps by a diminution of it.

In such cases we have often succeeded in producing a plentiful supply of milk by adopting the opposite plan of treatment; for it must be borne in mind as an important truth, that this failure proceeds more frequently from an over, than from an under quantity of food or of drink. It is a fact well known to all who have paid attention to the consequences of arterial excitement, that when it amounts to even moderate fever, the milk almost immediately diminishes in quantity; and also, when this action is diminished (provided it had not continued too long) by suitable remedies, that the secretion of milk again becomes more abundant.

Upon this principle we have frequently prescribed evacuants and abstinence, to promote the secretion of milk. With a view to illustrate this situation of the breasts, under an increased excitement of the system, and the advantage, nay, the absolute necessity of reducing the force of the blood vessels, for the purpose of restoring their secretory functions, we will relate one of several cases in which this plan was pursued.

*Case.*

Mrs. — informed us with great concern, that she would be under the necessity of procuring another wet nurse for her child, as the milk of the one she had diminished so rapidly as to make her certain her child could not be half nourished. It had begun to fail about three weeks before, without any evident cause; and though she had constantly tried the most generous diet and cordial drinks she could hear of, still it diminished daily, and was now so reduced as to scarcely offer a supply to the child once in twenty-four hours; or rather, the whole quantity fur-

nished in that period would not amount to more than one good meal.

We requested to see the nurse—she was accordingly presented. She was a young healthy looking woman, of florid complexion and clear skin, and without a single mark that would lead to the suspicion of a deficiency of milk from any imperfection of constitution—her milk was six months old, as it is called: she had been engaged in this family about three of that time; was from the country, and for some time gave entire satisfaction as to her conduct, temper, health, and quantity of milk. Upon being questioned, we found she was living upon a much more generous and stimulating diet than she had been previously accustomed to; she not only ate more at each meal than she had formerly done, but ate a greater number of meals; and instead of drinking milk, water, or milk and water, as she was wont to do before at such times, she was indulged in porter, ale, beer, milk punch, &c., with a view of keeping up her milk.

We found she had occasional headache; rested ill at night; had a disagreeable taste in her mouth in the morning; her tongue was furred, and her pulse full and frequent. It was evident her system was too much excited by her mode of life, and that nothing would restore her milk but a reduction of it. We accordingly ordered her to be bled; to take a brisk dose of salts; confine herself to a strict vegetable and milk diet, and to drink nothing but water.

At first we experienced much opposition to this plan; but it was eventually submitted to, and with such complete and rapid success, that in a week there was a sufficient secretion of milk. It may be proper to observe, that this woman after this period confined herself to a plain, simple diet, and never after had occasion to complain of a deficiency of milk.

This case, among many others, shows us that the scheme that wealthy and plentiful families adopt with their wet nurses is wrong from beginning to end. As little change should be made in the diet of the nurse as is strictly consistent with sufficient nourishment; and none perhaps in her habits of employment—that is, she should not exchange active for passive habits. If she has been accustomed to work, give her by all means uniform employment. If she has been much exposed to the air and weather, let her and the child have the advantage of air and exercise upon all proper occasions: the extremes of heat and cold should of course be avoided, as well as a wet atmosphere.

This case also well illustrates the position we have endeavoured to sustain, namely, that a stimulating diet is not always the best method to procure an increase of milk. But at the

same time, we are far from declaring that a more generous diet may not be occasionally necessary—but such cases are by no means so common as is generally imagined, and still more rarely is a stimulating one proper.

The remedies which we have ever found to contribute most to the improvement of the milk are, regular exercise in the open air, milk and water, milk alone, malt tea, molasses posset, or porter or ale posset, when a mild stimulus may be required. These may be drank freely, at any period of the day or night; and the nurse who may employ them will find herself much satisfied with their effects.

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### THE OPERATION OF BLEEDING.

Many individuals might be materially benefitted by bleeding, when unfortunately they are far from medical assistance. We give, therefore, the following description of the operation, and have no doubt that our intelligent readers will profit by the information:—

Bleeding, or as it is sometimes termed, phlebotomy, is now generally performed either from the arm or the external jugular vein. When from the temporal artery or its branches, it is termed arteriotomy. To bleed from the arm, a fillet or bandage is to be bound rather tight around it, half way up the os humeri; this is done to prevent the blood from flowing to the heart, by which means also, the vessels are distended and made conspicuous, and the blood made to flow more freely. The finger is then to be pressed into the bend of the arm, to discover the pulsation of the artery, and if a vein be situated above, avoid puncturing it, if possible. Select the vein which rolls the least under the finger, and if it is one rather deeper situated, it may be opened much better than another more superficial. The thumb of the left hand is to be placed upon the vein just below where the opening is to be made, to prevent its slipping from under the lancet. Put the lancet at right angles with its sheath, take it between the thumb and forefinger of the right hand, and gently push it into the vein, in an oblique direction; when a little within the cavity, push it forwards and upwards still obliquely, which movement will bring it out again. Some cases require larger openings to be made, to obtain syncope without a great loss of the vital fluid: this may be done by pushing the lancet when in the vein a little more obliquely forwards and upwards. The patient is then directed to take hold of any thing most convenient, to open and grasp his hand, that by the play of the muscles the blood may



flow freely, but this will not be required if the incision is properly made, or unless the circulation is languid.

After the quantity required is drawn, the finger and thumb of the left hand are to be placed above and below the wound; the fillet is to be removed, the arm washed, and a pledget of lint, or linen, is to be placed over the wound, the lips of which must be made to meet: pass the bandage round the elbow in the figure of 8 shape, the crossing to come just above the pledget. The upright posture favours syncope, and should be adopted if the state of the patient will allow. In ordinary bleeding, if the patient complains of a very great degree of faintness, a few drops of the spiritus ammoniæ aromaticus, or the spiritus lavendulæ compositus, may be administered in a little water, or he may recline on the sofa for a few moments.

In this country the external jugular vein is more frequently opened in children than in adults. A little difficulty is sometimes experienced by the child throwing itself into awkward positions: it may therefore be opened in the most convenient situation; place the thumb of the left hand upon the vein, a little below where the opening is to be made, push the lancet obliquely upwards, stop the bleeding first by gentle pressure, and after put upon the wound a pledget of lint, which is to be kept down by small strips of adhesive plaster.

The temporal artery or its branches may be opened in the same manner as a vein, but should it be deeply seated, a small incision must first be made direct over it, and the lancet afterwards carried into the vessel. The hæmorrhage may be stopped by pressure, or by cutting it completely across to make it retract.

If any preference is given to lancets, the spear shape has the advantage, as it can be made more easily to glide into and dilate a vein or artery. Clean the instrument carefully after every operation, by rubbing it with a soft piece of linen, first upon one half of the sheath, and then upon the other.

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#### THE EFFECTS OF EXTERNAL IMPRESSIONS, IN HEALTH AND IN DISEASE.

Impressions on the senses affect the stomach. A disagreeable taste, smell, sound, or touch, is apt to occasion sickness and shivering, to set the teeth on edge, or to make the mouth water. The smell of spirits sickens and intoxicates; smells agreeable to some, makes others sick, faint, and suffer abortion; while fœtid ones sometimes recover people from sickness, syncope, or hysteria. Certain motions, as that of a swing, ship, or carriage; going backwards, turning round, and, in cases of ill

health, the posture of standing, or even sitting, occasions sickness, while that of lying prevents it and syncope. Agreeable sensations often relieve sickness and promote digestion ; but in excess, injure the stomach exceedingly.

Emotions are felt at the stomach. The modifications of aversion, as fear, anger, shame and grief, instantly impair the keenest appetite, and are apt to occasion sickness, tremors, paleness, flushings, weeping, various nervous affections, looseness, and jaundice. One is sick at the thought of any thing disagreeable ; and an injury is properly enough said to stick in the stomach ; which word itself in many languages implies anger and other states of mind. The modifications of desire, as hope, complacence, and joy, improve the appetite and promote digestion and strength. The thought of any thing agreeable does one's heart good ; which common phrase, like that of sick at heart, refers to the stomach, as the word bowels does to the kindly affections. Agreeable emotions in excess are apt to produce mania and other disorders, and have been suddenly fatal. While the mind is much struck or fixed, as in thought, passion, affection, or mania, the sensibility is diminished to other impressions, as that of spirits, medicines, contagion, and temperature ; and fits of various diseases are thus suspended.

There is a great analogy between the internal surface, from the mouth to the anus, and the external one, both being continuous, pervious to fluids by vessels, quickly regenerating lost substance, covered with mucous or sebaceous matter defending the tender surfaces, liable to abrasion, inflammation, thickening, and probably the same eruptive and other diseases, the state of the one affecting or alternating with that of the other. Perhaps the growth of hair after death, shews some continuance of life in the skin.

As a strong dose, it was observed, chiefly affects the stomach, so a strong impression, as pinching, affects chiefly the part ; the whole system occasioning itching and laughter ; and if continued, weakness, sickness, vomiting, and convulsions. Gentle pinching and friction are prevailing eastern customs, and exercise is universally so, for promoting digestion. A large bleeding sickens, and small ones are commended in many cases ; compression allays vomiting and colic ; a plaster, by giving support to the muscles of the back, seems sometimes to steady the stomach and system ; and the want of usual compression, as that of a neckcloth, stays, or garters, is apt to produce sickness and other uneasy feelings.

Scrofulous-like tumours in the neck have been attributed to compression of the inguinal glands by a truss ; and various dis-

eases to that of the feet and other parts. Peculiar impressions, or slight impressions in peculiar states, produce peculiar symptoms. A scratch produces in some, swelled glands; in others tetanus, with a state of stomach attended with pain, and which has borne fifteen hundred grains of good opium in six days, without sleep, or any affection of the head or mind. This occurs particularly in warm climates, where there is little disposition to inflammation. The application of a stimulant, as turpentine, to the part exciting proper inflammation and suppuration, has been found to prevent tetanus; and mercury is probably useful in it and some other cases, by inducing that state of stomach and vessel which has been called phlogistic; in which the parts of the blood are in that separable state, fit for forming a proper suppuration.

An old and obstinate epilepsy, it is said, has ceased to return after the extirpation of a wart from the surface. Dentition produces vomiting, purging, eruptions, fever, and convulsions. A transplanted tooth has produced appearances of syphilis or scrofula, cured both with and without mercury. A wound gradually, according to its seat or extent, affects the stomach, as appears from the indigestion, foul tongue, and fever, inducing as in pregnancy for the fœtus, that state of vessel necessary to form the buffy coat, and instead of blood, that suppuration, so remarkably under the influence of diet; and during which the state of stomach is sometimes such, that solid meat has suddenly produced great weakness, with dyspnœa, delirium, and convulsions, ending in death; and the suppuratory or hectic state, if it does not heal, teases, wastes, and destroys. In pregnancy the state of stomach is peculiar, seemingly necessary to the retention of the fœtus; and may be the cause of its resisting contagion, and arresting the symptoms of phthisis. A state of vessel that teases the stomach and system, is often taken off by a spontaneous hæmorrhage or inflammation effected by an effort of the stomach, which a bleeding or a blister could not allay.

The elements of food and drink in forming chyle, blood, secretions, and solid parts; and the base of vital air uniting with these by the lungs, and perhaps by the surface, may give the blood its colour, its temperature, its mobility, its coagulability, its power of acting on the left ventricle with those appearances of vitality ascribed to it by Mr. Hunter; and these condensations going on less in a warm temperature, and more in a cold one, may, by the accommodating nature of the stomach with the other parts, preserve the equilibrium of heat in the system.

That temperature on the surface affects the stomach is evi-



dent from certain applications, of cold, exciting vomiting and purging, from hot applications, or a hot fit relieving those vomitings which occur in fever and the plague; and from changes of temperature inducing or relieving various diseases, and fits of disease, of which the stomach is the seat. A warm fomentation relieves the sense of heat, handling snow occasions it; an irritation as from a thorn produces it, and an irritation in the stomach occasions alternations of heat and cold. Human heat is between  $32^{\circ}$  and  $156^{\circ}$ , the two coagulating points; and the agreeable is, exclusively of habit, between  $32^{\circ}$  and the human heat. In tropical and polar climates the appetite is keen, and the stomach resists the power of intoxicating liquors and of contagion. Seeds, eggs, imperfect and young animals and maniacs, being, as it were, all stomach, bear the effects of heat and cold remarkably.

Certain degrees of heat and cold dispose to sleep; which, in the case of cold, or of external and internal poison, subduing the power of the stomach, is apt to prove fatal. From the long fasting that is borne in sleep, the slow operation of a medicine, and the suspension of stools, the stomach seems less sensible in that state; the temperature is two degrees less; and cold is easily caught in sleep. If appetite or sleep pass its periods, the disposition ceases, and its return is the first symptom of crisis in fever. Dyspeptics are apt to start from sleep or the article of sleep, and then other nervous affections, as asthma, palpitation, epilepsy, and gout, are apt to happen, probably from the change in the state of the stomach. It seems to be only in occasional states of stomach that fits from fixed causes, and other periodical diseases, occur.

Friction, fomentations, aromatics, foetids, acrids, spirits, ammonia, æther, and opium allay vomiting; and internal spasms prove cathartic, or favour the operation of one. In people with whose stomachs honey, unctuous matter, or eggs disagree, any application of these, or of wax to a sore, has been observed likewise to disagree. Tartrite or muriate of antimony applied externally, as if taken into the stomach, excite vomiting, purging and sweating. It is said that bitters expel worms, that opium and tobacco produce ebriety, that bark cures ague, and that opium applied to the bare surface, has destroyed life without being absorbed. Ammonia, weakened with oil, so as to be applied to the surface, frequently produces nausea and an universal sweat. Some sapids so applied, seem to affect the sense of taste without reaching it. Arsenic, the bite of a viper, or of a mad dog, has produced death; and, on dissection, the stomach only has been found inflamed.—*To be Continued.*

CONDUCT TO BE PURSUED PREVIOUS AND SUBSEQUENT  
TO MEALS. BY DR. PARIS.

As dietetic regulations are intended for the use of those who are either suffering under disease, or are compelled, from the precarious state of their health, to attend to every circumstance which may be likely to preserve it, it is scarcely necessary, in a professional work, to apologise for the introduction of advice, which, to the robust and healthy, may appear frivolous and unnecessary. It is admitted, that nature never contemplated the necessity of confining men to a certain routine of habits; nor did she contemplate, as far as we can learn, the existence of those diseases which may render such discipline necessary. We have in this place only to inquire into the habits which are most favourable or hostile to the process of digestion, and then to form a code for the direction of those who stand in need of such artificial assistance.

Exercise in the open air is essential to the well being of every person; but its degree must be regulated by the circumstances under which the individual is placed. The interval between breakfast and dinner is the period for active exertion; and the enjoyment of it, when not attended with severe fatigue, will strengthen and invigorate all the functions of the body. This, too, is the period when the mind may direct its energies with the greatest chance of success; but it is important to remark, that *the valetudinarian and dyspeptic ought never to take his principal meal in a state of fatigue*: and yet I would ask, whether there is a habit more generally pursued or more tenaciously defended? Ay, and defended too upon *principle*;—the invalid, merchant, the banker, the attorney, the government clerk, are all impressed with the same belief, that after the sedentary occupations of the day, to walk several miles to their villas, or to fatigue themselves with exercise before their dinner, or rather early supper, will sharpen their tardy stomachs, and invigorate their feeble organs of digestion. The consequence is very obvious: instead of curing, such a practice is rather calculated to perpetuate, and even aggravate the malady under which they may suffer, by calling upon the powers of digestion at a period when the body is in a state of exhaustion from fatigue. Often have I, in the course of my practice in this town, cured the dyspeptic invalid, by merely pointing out the error of this prevailing opinion, and inducing him to abandon the mischievous habit which has been founded upon it. Do not let me be understood as decrying the use of moderate exercise

before dinner; it is the *abuse* of it that I am anxious to prevent. No person should sit down to a full meal, unless he has had the opportunity of inhaling the open air and taken a quantity of exercise, proportionate to his power of sustaining it without fatigue. Upon this point I agree with Mr. Abernethy, who says, "I do not allow the state of the weather to be urged as an objection to the prosecution of measures so essential to health, since it is in the power of every one to protect from cold by clothing; and the exercise may be taken in a chamber with the windows thrown open, by walking actively backwards and forwards, as sailors do on shipboard." Horse exercise is undoubtedly salutary, but it should by no means supersede the necessity of walking; where the two modes can be conveniently combined, the greatest advantage will arise. I have heard that a physician of eminence has declared, "*that equitation is more beneficial to the horse than to his rider:*" my own experience on this subject will not allow me to concede to such a proposition; nor to that which maintains that "*riding is the best exercise for regaining health, and walking for retaining it.*" It must be admitted, that the shaking which attends horse exercise, is salutary to the stomach and intestines; it is also less fatiguing to the inferior limbs; so that persons in a weak state can use it with less pain or difficulty. There is also another circumstance connected with this subject, upon which I am inclined to think that sufficient stress has not been laid, the rapidity with which we change the air. I am not aware that any theory has been proposed to explain the fact; but I am perfectly well satisfied, that rapid motion through the air is highly beneficial. As this is a gymnastic age, I may be allowed to offer some further observations upon the importance of exercising the body. The occupation of *digging* is more beneficial than is usually supposed; and to dyspeptic patients it proves useful, by the agitation thus occasioned in the abdominal region. Patients who have suffered from visceral congestion, have experienced the greatest benefit from it. I am induced to believe, that the general discontinuance of those manly exercises, which were so commonly resorted to by our ancestors in the metropolis, has contributed to multiply our catalogue of dyspeptic diseases; and I cannot but express my satisfaction at the prospect of the establishment of a society for their re-introduction. Stow, in his Survey of London, laments the retrenchments of the grounds appropriated for pastimes, which had begun to take place even in his day: what would he say, could he now revisit the metropolis? It has been truly observed, that had it not been for the effect of bodily ex-



ercise, Cicero would never have triumphed at the bar, nor Julius Cæsar in the field.

One of the great evils arising from too sedentary habits, is constipation of the bowels. This, however, may to a certain degree be remedied, by standing for a certain period; and I have repeatedly known the greatest benefit to arise from the student or clerk introducing a high desk into his office, by which he is enabled to pursue his occupation in a standing posture.

I have already explained the necessity of exercise at that period of the digestive process, when the chyle enters the circulation; and it is, perhaps, not the least of the evils which attend the modern fashion of late dinners, that it should preclude the possibility of such a regulation. The utility of dancing may certainly be deduced from these views, and its propriety sanctioned on just principles; but the lateness of the hour at which these recreations commence, and, what is worse, the excessive heat and ill-ventilation of the apartments in which they are usually carried on, must counteract any benefit that might otherwise attend an indulgence in them. If exercise be useful during the period of sanguification, pure air is no less so; and I shall take this opportunity of entering my protest against the introduction of gas into the interior of our houses.

Sleeping after dinner is a practice of very questionable propriety; it is true, that the inhabitants of many southern climates indulge it with impunity: but it does not appear essential in our country, where animal food is used in such considerable quantities. In states of disease it may occasionally be useful, and the recumbent posture may expedite the passage of the aliment out of the stomach into the intestines; but the person who lies down for the accomplishment of such an object, should be careful to remove all ligatures from his body.

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#### THE SYMPTOMS AND CAUSES OF INDIGESTION.

BY DR. WILSON PHILIP.

The symptoms which arise immediately from undigested food, exist in various degrees in different cases. In the very commencement of the disease, they are often the only symptoms which occasion much uneasiness, from which it appears, that the functions of the stomach may, for a certain time, be so disordered as to produce a feeble, or otherwise vitiated, secretion, without in any other way very sensibly affecting the functions of the system. People frequently complain of a sense of distention after eating, and flatulent and acid eructations, who

notwithstanding, enjoy good general health; and find that even these symptoms may be prevented by taking less food, and that of a more digestible quality; and if they are prudent in this respect, and the constitution is otherwise sound, and not exposed to the effects of indolence, and other causes, weakening the nervous system, the stomach will often recover its powers without farther means.

In the majority of cases, however, either from neglect on the part of the patient, or a greater degree of obstinacy in the cause, the above symptoms continue to recur. This never happens for any great length of time, without the other parts of the alimentary canal partaking of the disease. Their secretions also begin to suffer some deviation from the healthy state. The mouth is clammy, and the tongue more or less furred, particularly in the morning. The secretions of the intestines, for the most part are impaired in quantity, and, at the same time, probably, altered in quality. The bowels do not act so readily as usual, and they are occasionally distended and tense, especially some time after eating.

But these symptoms, the patient finds, yield to some mild aperient, which, at the same time, promotes the action of the stomach, and his feelings on the whole differ but little from those of health. He is more apt to be thirsty, his appetite is generally more or less impaired and variable, he complains of his feet being cold, but still his strength and general appearance are but little affected, and he seldom thinks it necessary to pay particular attention to symptoms which appear so slight, and for the time yield so readily.

#### *Effects on the Mind.*

By degrees, however, they recur more frequently, and begin to be attended with some depression of strength, which at first is only occasional. This, in general, is the first thing which seriously calls his attention to the disease. The mind, if the disease proceed, partakes of these returns of languor, and the patient at length finds it difficult at all times to command his attention, and upon the whole, that he is not capable of his usual mental efforts. His sleep is disturbed by perplexing dreams, and sometimes by fits of night-mare. In a large proportion of cases, however, he enjoys good nights, and even those who are troubled with dreaming and restlessness, often feel more drowsy than usual.

He now becomes alarmed, and occasionally feels a degree of despondency. Instead of thinking too lightly of his complaint, he often regards it in the most serious point of view, and can-

not be persuaded that any thing less than some important derangement can produce the anxiety and depression by which his attention gradually becomes wholly engrossed; for none but an attentive physician can know how slight a derangement of the alimentary canal, especially after the habit of disease is formed, is capable of influencing every function of the system.

### *The Alvine Discharge.*

While the symptoms thus proceed, a change, sooner or later takes place, which marks an important step in the progress of the disease. The alvine discharge begins to deviate from the healthy appearance: it sometimes contains uncombined bile, sometimes it chiefly consists of bile; its colour at other times is too light, more frequently too dark; and occasionally, at length almost black; at different times it assumes various hues, sometimes inclining to green, sometimes to blue, and sometimes it is mixed with, and now and then almost wholly consists of, undigested bits of food. When there is much straining, it often contains mucus, sometimes in distinct masses, and not unfrequently substances resembling bits of membrane. It frequently separates from the canal with more difficulty than usual, and leaves a feeling of the bowels not having been completely emptied.

We have reason to believe that the above change and variety of colour arise chiefly from the state of the bile, to which the alvine discharge owes its natural tinge, being quite white, when no bile flows into the bowels. It would appear that the properties of the bile are sometimes changed without change of colour; but this is comparatively so rare, that if the colour of the alvine discharge be natural, we may generally infer that the function of the liver is duly performed.

The disease has hitherto been what, strictly speaking, is called stomach complaints. It is now, from the various appearances of the vitiated bile, and the various symptoms which arise from the irritation it and the other vitiated secretions occasion in the alimentary canal, what is called bilious and nervous complaints. The former of the two last appellations has also arisen from the bile, of which there is sometimes a superabundant secretion, being, occasionally, in consequence of the inverted action of the duodenum, thrown into the stomach; and there exciting nausea, headache, and bilious vomiting.

### *Effects of Food on the Discharge from the Bowels.*

Many conceive that the changes of colour in the alvine discharge are often to be ascribed more to circumstances in diet,



and changes which the contents of the bowels undergo in their passage through this canal, than to the state of the bile ; and I have no doubt, these causes operate to a greater or less extent. A long delay of their contents in the bowels generally darkens the colour ; a milk diet produces a discharge of a lighter colour than one consisting chiefly of animal food, and some vegetables and medicines communicate a certain tinge to the discharge. According to my experience, however, these causes on the whole produce less effect than might be expected, and, with a little attention on the part of the practitioner, will seldom mislead him. It must always be kept in view, that the appearance of the discharge often changes, when it has remained for some time out of the body.

#### *Variation of the Colour of the Urine.*

The urine also deviates from the healthy state. In its most healthy state, it is perfectly transparent when passed, and remains so after it cools, its colour being more or less deep in proportion to the degree in which its contents are diluted. It is however, liable to some deviations from this state under circumstances which can hardly be said to affect the general health.

It appears from some experiments I made many years ago, for the purpose of ascertaining the effects of various circumstances in diet, &c., on the state of the urine, an account of which the College of Physicians of London did me the honour to publish in the last volume of their *Transactions*, that when acid greatly prevails in the stomach and bowels, or the skin becomes more inactive than usual, so that it does not freely throw off the acid, which it appears from these experiments always passes by this organ, a red deposition, which consists of lithic acid, takes place from the urine after it has stood for some time, this fluid still remaining clear ; and on the other hand, that when the skin has been unusually excited, or an alkalescent state of the stomach and bowels prevails, it becomes turbid, and deposits a whitish and often pinky sediment, which seems chiefly to consist of the phosphates of the urine, on the nature of which the experiments of Dr. Wollaston have thrown so much light, and the lithate of ammonia.

Both these states are more apt to appear in indigestion than in ordinary health ; and the urine in this disease is sometimes covered with a very thin oily looking film, which, according to Dr. Prout's experiments, consists of minute crystals of the triple phosphate. Sometimes also it is limpid, and passed in unusually large quantities, more frequently scanty and too high-coloured. It is then most apt, as we should *à priori* expect, to deposit the

above sediments, unless some degree of fever prevail, when it often either deposits nothing, or a little of the red sediment.

### *Retention of Urine, &c.*

A remarkable sympathy between the state of the kidneys and intestines is frequently observed in indigestion, the urine remaining scanty and high-coloured when the bowels are constipated; and flowing freely, and of a paler colour, as soon as a free discharge from them has been obtained. Even in those dropsical affections which supervene on this disease, it is not uncommon for all diuretics to fail, when the bowels are constipated, and for the operation of cathartics alone to be followed by a free discharge from the kidneys.

The copious flow of urine which sometimes attends indigestion seems frequently to arise from a failure in the action of the skin, as appears from some of the experiments relating to the effects of diet above referred to. The kidneys and skin separate the same fluid from the blood, and a failure of secretion from the latter is often compensated by an increase of that from the former, if they have not by sympathy partaken too much of the state of the skin. Thus in dyspeptics an unusual application of cold to the surface, when the powers of the system are not able so to re-act as to support the due action of the skin under it, frequently occasions an increased flow of urine.

The same cause often occasions a greater discharge from the bowels. It particularly demands attention in this disease, that although the increased discharge from the bowels in the instance before us is of a watery nature, when the skin has, from the continuance of that disease, become uniformly languid, the increase is often in the solid, as well as liquid contents of the bowels. On the same principle, the quantity which passes from the bowels of delicate children when the skin has become dry and shrivelled, is often astonishing, and that even when little nourishment is received, as if not only what ought to have passed by the skin, but a great deal of what had been inhaled by this organ were deposited in a solid form in the alimentary canal. Some facts would lead us to suppose that in such a state of the skin, the inhalation by it is often very great. I have seen several gallons of water drawn off from a child ten or twelve years old, labouring under extensive abdominal disease, and apparently re-collected in eight or ten days, although but little fluid had been taken.

What is here said is well illustrated by an opposite state of the system. In very great eaters, the alvine discharge is often

no greater than in other people, but the secretion by the skin is found much more free. Even in a remarkable case of this kind, an account of which appeared in the Medical Journals of the day (1797), in which an individual could eat daily twelve or fifteen pounds of raw meat, and would have starved if confined to the allowance of two or three ordinary men, the alvine discharge was little, if at all, greater than usual, yet he continued thin, and the superfluous quantity of nutriment ran off by profuse night-sweats.

The sensible change in the appearance of the alvine secretions in indigestion, is generally attended with some change in the other symptoms. The stomach is more apt to be oppressed after eating, the patient often observing that he feels as if there were not room for what he had taken. The bowels are more frequently variable, diarrhœa often supervening without any evident cause, almost uniformly followed by fits of constipation. These, the patient finds, cannot now be removed by the simple medicines which at first succeeded; larger doses or more active medicines are necessary, and their effect corresponds with the previous state of the bowels. The discharge is generally unsatisfactory, something seeming to be retained. It is very often watery, or frequent, small, semi-fluid, teasing, mixed with mucus, and sometimes streaked with blood, and after it has frequently recurred, often chiefly consists of mucus and a little blood, the passage of which is attended with much griping and bearing down, and followed by a constant desire of further evacuation. The patient takes more medicine, with the hopes of a freer effect, but he thus often increases the straining more than the discharge.

After this state of irritation has continued to recur for a great length of time, a degree of permanent spasmodic stricture sometimes appears to take place in the rectum. This I have known happen to such a degree as to give a tape-like appearance to the alvine discharge for many months without intermission, and suggest the idea of organic stricture, till an examination of the part proved its real nature. A more temporary contraction of the rectum, occasionally giving this appearance to the discharge, is not an uncommon symptom.

In the mean time the patient is harrassed with a variety of other symptoms, arising from the irritation occasioned by the morbid contents of the alimentary canal; increasing languor, pains of the stomach, more frequently of the bowels, and particularly of the lower part of the bowels, sometimes continued, generally of the griping kind, a sense of heat, or, as the patient often calls it, burning, referred to the stomach, and now and



then extending to the bowels, which sometimes proves the most obstinate and distressing symptom of the disease, or of weight in the right hypochondrium or lower part of the abdomen, with unusual distention of the former, sometimes disappearing in a day or two, particularly after freer evacuations, and returning again, at other times more stationary; a more foul and clammy tongue, nausea, more rarely vomiting, a depression of strength, which sometimes, particularly after the unsatisfactory operation of cathartics, almost amounts to syncope, and a despondency that is hardly equalled in any other disease.

With these symptoms, others, the consequence of the sympathy which exists between the stomach and other parts of the system, gradually shew themselves. They are different in different cases, pain of different parts, and other complaints, of the head, affections of the sight, the hearing, smell, or taste. More or less habitual inflammation, and even ulceration, of the throat are by no means uncommon, and the voice and articulation are sometimes variously affected. The patient is sometimes distressed with spasms of the trunk or limbs, numbness, and even temporary loss of power in the latter: and feelings of endless variety are described as sometimes in one part of the body and sometimes in another.

By a constant recurrence of such attacks without being uniformly ill, for the rapidity with which the patient rallies is often as great as that with which he is subdued, he is gradually rendered unfit for the active duties of life. This preys on his mind, increasing the despondency which makes a part of his disease, and which in its turn, by further debilitating the digestive organs, aggravates all the symptoms.

These organs being no longer in a proper state to prepare due nutriment, the body becomes emaciated, and more permanently feeble, the strength by degrees rallying less readily and less perfectly after the frequent returns, and what was at first only a temporary depression from a debilitating cause affecting the nerves of the alimentary canal, is gradually changed into real debility, the countenance, which is almost always a sure index of what is passing internally, becoming pale and haggard.

It is of great importance in judging of the state of this disease to distinguish between debility and what may be called depression of strength. In the latter the action of the vital powers is impeded, in the former their vigour is impaired. The one may supervene in a moment, and may be as instantly relieved; the other, unless the cause be very powerful, comes on more slowly, and is in all cases slowly removed. We have an instance of depression of strength in the effects of an offending cause in

the stomach and bowels, which cease as soon as the cause ceases to operate; of debility in the effects of repeated irritation of these organs, which continue after the cause of irritation no longer exists. Thus the debility, which appears suddenly at the commencement as well as at other periods of indigestion, is of trifling importance, compared with that more permanent debility which supervenes gradually, the symptoms of which are often slight compared with those of temporary depression of strength, but which is always more difficult of cure. The one is chiefly important as it indicates what is passing internally: the other proves that the powers of the constitution are yielding to the disease. Either mistaken for the other leads to serious errors in practice.

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ON COSTIVENESS ATTENDANT ON PILES. BY DR. REECE.

Costiveness not only aggravates the distention of the hæmorrhoidal veins and the effusion in the surrounding cellular membrane, constituting piles, but is generally the principal cause of the complaint. One dose of an active purgative, by unloading the lower intestines, generally affords considerable relief; but a repetition of it in the course of a few days, frequently increases the irritation. After unloading the bowels, a re-accumulation of fæces in the colon and rectum should be prevented by the regular use of a mild dose of an active aperient, so as to produce one or two copious soft motions daily, in conjunction with a remedy, capable of allaying irritation in the rectum.

The following composition we have known not only to obviate costiveness without exciting griping pains in the intestines, but effectually to allay irritation and inflammatory excitement in the rectum:—

Take of alkaline extract of jalap, one drachm;  
purified pitch (Stockholm) half a drachm.

Mix, and divide into twenty-four pills; two or three to be taken once or twice a-day.

A lavement of cold thin gruel, or cold water, once a-day, has been lately much extolled by some French writers, as a remedy for piles and irritative affections of the rectum and colon; and we have heard some practitioners in this country, who have given them a trial in those complaints, speak very favourably of their effects in allaying irritation, and especially when attended with a disposition to prolapsus, and in constringing relaxed hæmorrhoidal vessels. The decoction of oak bark, injected into the rectum cold, which is much recommended by some practitioners in cases of piles, and prolapsus ani, we have

always found to excite considerable colicky pains ; and when the bowels are irritable, cold water injected into the colon, in case of piles, or inflammatory excitement in the rectum, has brought on inflammatory colic. In a plethoric person, of an apoplectic make, cold water, or cold thin gruel, injected into the rectum, might produce such an afflux of blood to the brain as to occasion apoplexy. The lower portion of the intestines are more susceptible of the action of cold than any part of the body, and in gouty and other invalids of tender bowels, even cold water or cold air applied externally, will often excite colicky pains, or painful purging.

If the parts have sustained much mischief from repeated attacks of inflammatory piles, the following ointment may be applied externally, and by means of a bougie or candle, introduced into the rectum every night :—

Take of the hydro-sublimed calomel, one drachm ;  
spermaceti ointment, one ounce ; flowers of zinc, half  
a drachm.

Mix well together.

When the irritation extends up the rectum, the soft rectum bougie, besmeared with this ointment, applied for a few minutes every night and morning, when reclining in a bed, generally removes the disease in a few days, and will effectually prevent structural mischief.

If the parts be in a state of great rigidity, or disposed to stricture or structural mischief, two drachms of the ointment of belladonna may be substituted for the flowers of zinc. If the external skin be excoriated or affected with erysipelatous inflammation, which is generally attended with a distressing itching and an exudation of serum, it may be washed twice a-day with the following lotion :—

Take of sulphate of copper, five grains ;  
elder-flower water, four ounces.

Mix.

Or the following ointment may be rubbed over the affected parts every night and morning :—

Take of citrine ointment, six drachms ;  
Barbadoes tar, half a drachm.

Mix.

All purgatives containing aloes, as the compound colocynth pill, the cathartic extract, (compound extract of colocynth) &c., are improper in cases of piles and morbid irritation of the rectum. Such is the peculiar stimulating effects of aloetic purges on the rectum, that, in general, piles, and most other



schirrous diseases of the rectum, may be traced to their free use. All the advertised purgative and antibilious pills we have examined contain aloes; and to their regular use we have known invalids, who have fallen cruel sacrifices to the most distressing diseases to which human nature is subject, viz. the schirro-contracted rectum, attribute their affliction.

It is common for physicians unacquainted with surgery to pronounce all irritative affections of the rectum, unattended with external piles, internal piles, and to subject the patients to their routine treatment in such cases. Irritation within the rectum is an attendant on a variety of diseases, many of which advance to an incurable stage, during the time the patient continues under such management.

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#### ON THE NECESSITY OF A MARRIED LIFE AS REGARDS HEALTH.

As we consider that to live well, is to live happily, and that *good living* can only be enjoyed in a state of perfect health, we deem it our duty to point out every means whereby so desirable an end can be accomplished, and none contributes really so much towards its acquisition as a well assorted marriage.

Whatever the gay libertine may think, a connubial connexion, when formed according to proper principles, certainly yields superior joy, and more exquisite gratifications, than any loose or temporary union can produce. If contrasted, as it sometimes is, with friendship, there can be no comparison; for marriage is sweetened with more delicacy and tenderness, and is confirmed by dearer pledges, than can attend the closest alliance of friendship. Such, indeed, are the innumerable advantages, both public and private, resulting from the married state, that the most distinguished statesmen have invariably maintained it ought to be, in a peculiar manner, favoured by the laws, as the best foundation of political strength and of social happiness.

The philosophic Buffon observes, that, after puberty, marriage is the proper state of man, and most consonant to his nature and circumstances. In youth, says Bacon, wives are our mistresses, companions in middle age, and nurses when we get old; so that a man has always reasons in favour of matrimony. But the author who has most fully dwelt upon this subject, is Hufeland. He considers the marriage state as indispensibly requisite for the moral perfection of mankind. He contends, that it prevents debilitating dissipation on the one hand, and cold and unnatural indifference on the other; that it moderates and regulates enjoyment, whilst it promotes do-

mestic joy, which is the purest, the most uniform, and the least wasting of any; the best suited to physical as well as moral health; and the most likely to preserve the mind in that happy medium, which is the most favourable to longevity. It also lays the foundation, not only for the happiness of the present generation, but for that of the future; since it is the matrimonial union alone, that produces to the state, well educated citizens, accustomed from their youth to regularity, and an observance of the duties they have to perform.

It is singular, also, that by far the greatest proportion of those who have attained great age were married; and though sailors and soldiers have no peculiar inducement to enter into the connubial state, yet, out of a hundred and twenty-seven aged people, who are pensioners in the Hospitals of Greenwich and Kilmainham, there were only thirteen bachelors; the remaining one hundred and fourteen had been married men. Few monks, it has been remarked, get old; and few nuns reach any length of years.

Marriages, however, are not to be indiscriminately approved of. To make them answer the purposes of health, and the other objects to be kept in view in the connubial state, there ought to be a parity of station, a similarity of temper, and no material disproportion in point of age. It is owing to the want of some of these most essential requisites, that the married state proves so often the source of misery, instead of joy or comfort.

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#### ON THE USE OF MURIATIC ACID IN FEVERS.

By Dr. BUCHAN.

The use of muriatic acid in fever, was first introduced into the Westminster Hospital, on the suggestion of Mr. Sutherland, a respectable apothecary residing in Westminster, in consequence of his having witnessed its efficacy in low fevers, occurring in the parish workhouse, of which he had formerly the charge.

It is, however, no new medicine, although, like many other valuable remedies, it has been alternately in vogue and forgotten. The introduction of a new medical theory, often expels a valuable article from the *Materia Medica*; a circumstance much to be regretted; as, in my opinion, a remedy, the utility of which in any one complaint is sanctioned by experience, is of more real importance to the welfare of mankind, than all the medical theories that have hitherto been broached, taken together.

The earliest account that I have met with, of the muriatic acid being used as a remedy, is contained in a scarce pamphlet now lying before me, published in 1667, and entitled, "*Alexicacus Spirit of Salt of the World, which, vulgarly prepared, is called the spirit of salt, or the transcendant virtue of the true spirit of salt, long looked for and now philosophically prepared and purified, &c. by Constantine Rhodonaces, Grecian, of the Isle of Chios, and one of his Majesty's Chemists; who is the sole author and Inventor of this spirit.*" The author is, of course, full of the praises of his nostrum, the preparation of which, in the then state of chemistry, was probably known to few. It is however a fact, that during the great plague in London, he was the most successful practitioner, and is said to have accumulated a large fortune. To use his own words, "the author, by using this spirit in drinks, broths, and sauces, (staying all the time of the pestilence in London), kept, by God's grace, not only himself and family, but also many others, during all the contagion of the plague." He also observes, that "it makes men agile, merry, and jocund, procuring moderate sweating and gentle sleep." Outwardly used, "it answers well to cleanse foul ulcers, and render the skin clear." The dose he recommends is much the same as is used at present, from sixty to eighty drops in twenty-four hours.

From this period, as a remedy for fever, it appears to have fallen into disuse, till it was revived in a pamphlet published by Sir W. Fordyce in 1790; who strongly recommends it in all diseases having a tendency to putridity, as typhus fever, malignant small-pox, measles, and sore-throat; and is sanguine in his hopes of its proving an effectual remedy for the plague itself.

Since that time, a medicine was introduced into the military hospitals of Prussia, as a secret, for the cure of fever; after a fair trial, and approbation of the army physicians, the secret was purchased by the king, and it turned out to be a diluted mixture of muriatic acid.

In a collection of medical tracts, published at Calcutta about twenty years ago, there is a paper, containing an account of a ship's crew being completely preserved from scurvy during a three years' voyage, by the use of muriatic acid, and as soon as the stock was exhausted, the complaint appeared with great virulence.

I remember some years ago, being called to see a patient in the neighbourhood of Drury-lane, whom I found lying insensible in bed with low fever, and covered with petechiæ, (the spotted fever, as it is termed). The case appeared to me



desperate, but I desired the attendants to put a drachm of muriatic acid into a pot of porter, and offer it to the patient as a beverage, as often as he was inclined to drink; in a few days I was informed he was better, and, to my surprise, he ultimately recovered.

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CURIOUS CASE OF VOMITING OF FAT AND BLOOD. BY  
DR. PASQUALI.

Dr. Pasquali, in the *Annali Univers.* relates the case of a man, aged seventy-five, who had always enjoyed good health with the exception of an attack of jaundice. He was in the habit of fasting sometimes for a whole day, or two, and then eating in excess the most indigestible substances. This went on for many years, without any apparent ill consequences; but the day of reckoning at length arrived. For two years past he had been seized with periodical vomitings, every week or a fortnight, attended with complete loss of appetite for some days; when the stomach would again become restored. One evening lately he was seized with a more severe attack than usual, after great imprudence in diet, and vomited most abundantly. When the paroxysm was apparently over, a new phenomenon took place, and Dr. Pasquali was called in. The matters thrown up were no longer the ordinary contents and secretions of the stomach, but a mixture of pure blood and a kind of thick oil or melted fat. This process went on to a prodigious extent, and our author calculated that the patient threw up in the course of twenty-four hours, the enormous quantity of thirty pounds or pints of this mixture. The man was reduced to the brink of the grave, and life was scarcely perceptible, when the orgasm ceased. And now a surprising change was perceived in the patient's body. He had been rather lusty before the attack; but his skin was hanging in folds, and the whole of the adipose substance seemed to have disappeared from the belly and every part of the body where it had previously abounded. The orgasm over, the poor man was nourished every hour with light liquid food, and life was thus preserved. In twenty days he was restored to health, but still with an immense loss of adipose substance.

Incredible as this case may appear, we believe it to be a fact. We have seen the stomach and the absorbents play such parts in the animal economy as would surprise and startle those who had not witnessed such feats. The above case also illustrates another fact—namely, that however long the stomach may bear with patience the insult which we daily offer that important

organ, yet the day of retribution must come at last ; and is generally the more terrible in proportion as it has been longer delayed. A hurricane, as it were, takes place in the constitution, and purges it of its morbid causes, or ill-gotten accumulations. It is thus that we see people laid up annually with certain constitutional diseases, as gout, indigestion, &c. which reduce the human fabric to a certain point, when the phenomena gradually cease, and the patient is anxious to make up the reduction in flesh by every kind of nutriment which himself or the cook can devise. He rises again to a certain point in the scale of (apparent) health, and thinks himself most fortunate in thus gaining such an ascendancy. But at this moment a cog flies from the machinery, and a morbid spring, which had long been gradually pressed down, is suddenly set free, a recoil in the constitution takes place, the disease is developed, and runs its course as before. It is, perhaps, not very material whether we call this periodical accession a salutary process or the natural consequence or effect of a train of morbid causes accumulating in the constitution. In either way we view it, the event is inevitable. Or, if evitable, the escape is worse than the attack. Every person who has experienced these periodical storms of the constitution, will acknowledge that the subsequent amelioration of function in the stomach and other organs of the body, as well as of the mind, is quite extraordinary—sufficient, indeed, to raise and support the idea of the preceding disease being a restorative or healthy process. But, on this subject, we shall soon have a fuller opportunity to enlarge.

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#### RECIPE FOR MAKING THE BLACK DROP.

Public attention was drawn to the Black, or Lancaster Drop, about ten years ago, by Dr. Armstrong, who published the formula in the first edition of his valuable work on typhus fever. It is certain, however, that full twenty-one years ago, two formulæ were given to the public by a Dr. James Cassels, of Lancaster—one corresponding with that of Dr. Armstrong, and the other as follows:—

Take of purified opium, five ounces,  
pimento and cinnamon, of each two drachms,  
saffron and Scville orange peel, of each one drachm,  
rectified spirit of wine, a pint.

Digest with a gentle heat for a week, and strain the liquor through flannel with a screw-press ; then add two or three ounces of sugar candy.

A friend of ours made the Black Drop according to the other

prescription (with the verjuice), but it did not correspond in colour, taste or property, with that which is sold as a secret preparation. We would, therefore, recommend a trial of the last mentioned formula, as a succedaneum for a very expensive, but very valuable medicine.

It is a fact that neither the one nor the other formula is original; for Dr. Jones, in his "*Mysteries of Opium revealed*," published nearly one hundred and thirty years ago, makes mention of a preparation of opium similar to Dr. Armstrong's receipt, under the title of "*Laudanum Liquidum Cydoneatum*." Quincy, in his *Dispensatory*, published in 1772, takes notice of this formula, and gives others for making laudanum with spices and aromatics, similar to the form which we now republish.

#### NEW AND EXPEDITIOUS WARM BATHING APPARATUS.

The most ingenious, and we believe the most useful bath which we have ever seen, is that lately invented by Mr. Hicks, surgeon, of Conduit-street. It is of the common size, and made of copper—runs on castors—and may be readily wheeled from one room or part of a house to another. It has a kind of hollow false bottom, every where surrounded by water, into which a piece of lighted paper is thrown, and the liquid fuel turned on by means of a small cock. The flame instantly pervades the whole of this hollow bottom, and, in consequence of its intensity, and the extensive surface of application, the water in the bath is heated in ten minutes from 55 of the thermometer, to upwards of 100. As the copper forming the hollow bottom is every where, excepting an aperture at each end, in contact with water, it never becomes heated beyond the temperature of the fluid, and consequently there is not the least danger of any accident to the bath. The rapidity with which a warm bath can thus be produced, is truly surprising; and is a desideratum in private houses, and, indeed, in public establishments, which has long been wanted. The expense of the fuel for heating the bath is, we understand, about one shilling. We have seen it put in operation, and recommend an examination of the bath to our readers.

#### ON THE ADVANTAGES OF FREQUENT ABLUTION.

"Ev'n from the body's purity the mind  
Receives a secret, sympathetic aid." THOMSON.

Personal cleanliness ought to be added to the list of the cardinal virtues, not only as being equally conducive with any of



them to the welfare of the body, but as it is connected with, and for the most part implies, a certain degree of delicacy and purity of mind. For the generality of cutaneous diseases, there is not, perhaps, a better recipe in the pharmacopœia than is to be found in one of the periodical papers of the "World." "Take of pure clean water *quantum sufficit*, put it into a clean earthen or china basin, then take a clean linen cloth, dip it in that water, and apply it to the part affected, night and morning, or oftener, as occasion may require."

At the same time that I would wish to inculcate the importance of frequent ablution, I cannot too deeply impress my opinion of the danger that may arise from a careless and indiscriminate use of the cold bath; a fashionable remedy, which is much more frequently injurious than those who have recourse to it seem to be aware of. By taking off heat from the system, when, from its enfeebled state, or other circumstances, it has not the power of generating heat in a sufficient quantity, it is particularly likely to be injurious to those weakly persons and delicate young females, to whom it is too much the fashion to prescribe it as a tonic or corroborant. To the latter, indeed, it may often be in other ways attended with inconvenient and even dangerous effects. In both sexes, pulmonary consumption frequently may be traced to the injudicious administration of this powerful and equivocal agent. There are certain obstructions or irregularities which the shock of the cold bath may be calculated to rectify or remove, but that a *course of shocks* should be in general likely to invigorate a feeble, or give what is called tone to a relaxed constitution, is too glaringly inconsistent with the suggestions of ordinary sense, to harmonize with the genuine principles of medical philosophy.

A patient is, for the most part, to be raised to a state of strength, from the depression of chronic debility, only by those influences which act gradually and almost imperceptibly, like that of the air which he is constantly, though unconsciously breathing, or that process of assimilation which is every moment going on in the body, without his being aware of it.

How large a proportion of the deaths which we see inserted in the public papers have occurred at sea-bathing places, where it is observed, the patient had gone for the benefit of his health! The more than ordinary expedition with which the destroyer executes his task in those fashionable resorts of mingled gaiety and sickness, is strikingly exhibited to our view in their crowded records of mortality. This would tend, one should imagine, to counteract, in some measure, that disposition to hope so easily imbibed, and so tenaciously cherished by the multitude of cre-

dulous invalids, who, on the approach of each returning Autumn, hasten with eagerness to the coast, fondly expecting to find, amidst the waves and the breezes of the ocean, that relief which elsewhere had been sought for in vain. Bathing in the sea is, however, less liable to danger or inconvenience than the ordinary cold bath, principally, if not entirely, because the marine temperature being higher, the transition from one element to another is less violent in the former case than in the latter. As to the saline particles of this, or any of the chemical constituents upon which is supposed to depend in a great measure the virtue of other baths of medicinal celebrity, they can scarcely have any important effect upon the body during the usual period of its immersion. Regarding, as it seems reasonable to do, the act of bathing as in the generality of cases beneficial, only so far as it performs the office of ablution, it will appear that the utility of every species of water is nearly equal, in reference to its external application. The waters of that city which originally derived its name from them, can have no real superiority in their external use, over waters which are equally heated in any other place. A warm bath in Middlesex is as good as a warm bath in Somersetshire. What are called medicinal springs may, indeed, from the influence of faith, produce wonderful results, in the same manner as miracles have been wrought in periods of superstition, at fountains which have been hallowed by some patron saint. Their natural efficacy was improved by their supernatural reputation. They were really salutary, because they were supposed to be sacred. It was the imputed holiness of the well which gave it in a great measure its healing quality.

Ablution which, in the Mosaic law, constituted one of its most important ceremonies, in the Christian was originally inculcated as an essential and introductory rite, and which has been always enjoined as necessary for the preservation of health, has of late been happily extended to the successful management of disease. It has been well ascertained that fevers may, in a number of cases, be *washed away* almost without pharmaceutical assistance.

In noticing the application of washing to the treatment of diseases, we cannot but refer, with gratitude and respect, to the scientific and benevolent exertions of the late Dr. Currie, whose splendid and solid talents, with equal success, were employed in restoring the health of the living, and in embalming the memory of the dead. No selfish insincerity can be suspected in an expression of reverence for the character of one whose ear it will never reach. The voice of praise, however loud, cannot interrupt the silence, or penetrate the secrecy of the tomb.



The washing of those parts of the body which are usually covered, is perhaps more necessary to health and comfort than of those that are exposed to the external air, a circumstance which, by favouring the process of evaporation, tends to prevent the accumulation upon the surface of that secreted matter, which when allowed to remain there, is apt to produce, in addition to a state of uncomfortable languor, febrile and a variety of cutaneous diseases.

Many persons in this part of the world, one might imagine from their practice, entertained a medical theory similar to that of a tribe inhabiting the Great Desert in Africa, noticed in a recent volume of travels. "No people have more aversion to water than the Tuarick generally have. Even in performing their necessary purifications, which require that a man should wash in a particular way before his prayers, they avoid water and make use of sand. Many attempts were made by us to discover the reason why they kept themselves in such a dirty state; but to all our enquiries we obtained nearly the same answer, 'God never intended that man should injure his health if he could avoid it; water having been given to man to drink and cook with, it does not agree with the skin of a Tuarick, who always falls sick after much washing.' It were most earnestly to be wished that an approximation to habits of this kind should doom the offender to a residence in the Great Desert, as the proper associate of his fellow-savages."

The warm bath has a remarkable influence in composing the mind when in that state of violent irritation, which often leads to the use of laudanum, or some equally deleterious opiate. This remedy has been for many years considered at the Retreat at York as of greater efficacy in certain cases of insanity than all the other medical means which have been employed. There is no agent which equally with the tepid bath is calculated to promote the general tranquillity of the constitution. It will often induce sleep when the more direct and accustomed opiates fail, and with all its beneficial tendency, it is followed by none of those evil effects that are apt to arise from the drugs more generally employed to allay uneasiness, to restore composure, and to conquer the obstinacy of an involuntary and unnatural vigilance. The notion that the warm bath is relaxing may, in a great measure, be derived from the effect which it is observed to produce upon inanimate matter; as if the nerves and muscles of the human frame were like the strings of a musical instrument. The warm bath is, in many cases, a congenial and salutary cordial; it animates torpor and elevates depression; on which account, when intemperately employed, or in cases where there is already



a too vigorous excitement, there is a chance of its proving deleterious. In furious mania, for instance, it has been known to produce mischievous effects.

To the mansions of the wealthy, a bath ought to be considered as an indispensable appendage ; and if institutions for the corporeal purification of the lower classes of society were generally established, such a measure could not fail to produce an incalculable diminution of disease, and would thus supersede, to a certain degree, the more expensive necessity of hospitals, and that of all the other medical asylums for popular refuge and relief.

#### BENEFIT OF WINE TO OLD PEOPLE. BY A BON VIVANT.

Wine taken with some excess is excellent for old people.

When shaken by the powerful force of age  
The body languid grows, and ev'ry joint  
Its proper juice exhal'd, all feeble droops.

And is not the reason plain? because it moistens their dry temperament, and nourishes their radical moisture. Hence came the proverb, which says, "that wine is the milk of old men." Tirellus, in his history, declares the same thing, when he says, "that wine is the nutriment of natural heat." Conformably to this truth that old man acted, of whom Seneca makes mention, who being pressed to drink wine cooled in snow, said, "that his age made him cold enough, and that he did not desire to be more cold than he was." Than which, certainly, no answer could be more just and true.

Besides, the infirmities of an advanced age require some consolation and diversion. Let us see what Montaigne says, who was not much given to tippling: for he plainly says, that his gout and complexion were greater enemies to drunkenness than his discourse. His words are these, "the inconveniences attending old age, which stand in need of some support and refreshment, might with reason produce in me a desire of this faculty, since it is as it were the last pleasure that the course of years steals from us. The natural heat, say the boon companions, begins first at the feet, this is the case of infancy; thence it ascends to the middle region, where it continues a long while, and there produces in my mind the only true pleasures of the corporeal life; at last exhaling itself like a vapour, it moves upwards, till it comes to the throat, and there it makes its last little stay."

Athenæus, after Theophrastus, says, that wine drives away those irksome inquietudes to which old people are unhappily subject. And to conclude, the divine Plato assures us, that

“wine is a medicine as well for the body as the mind, the dryness of old people have great occasion for this kind of moistening to temper their severe genius, and give that brisk gaiety, without which they would not be able to perform their part in the concert, and consequently would be no longer useful members in the commonwealth, which is no otherways supported and preserved than by harmony.”

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ADVICE TO PERSONS OF A PLETHORIC HABIT WHO ARE PRE-  
DISPOSED TO APOPLEXY.

To a person of a plethoric habit, with a short neck, costiveness is particularly injurious. It not only favours an increase of blood in the venous system, by the distended bowels compressing the descending aorta, but occasions an increased afflux of blood to the head, and at the same time, by compressing the veins, retards its return from the head; and hence the great relief some plethoric subjects receive, in cases of stupor, oppression of the chest, and indigestion, from the operation of a brisk purgative. Costiveness is, therefore, a very common precursor of apoplexy, and of inflammatory affections of the head. When the blood-vessels of the brain are evidently overloaded, a full dose of a brisk cathartic is necessary; and here an aloetic purge, as the cathartic extract, or the compound colocynth pill, by its stimulating effects on the rectum (occasioning a determination of blood to the bowels, and even the lower extremities), is most beneficial.

To obviate costiveness, and accelerate the circulation of the blood through the bowels, ten grains of the aromatic pill (in two pills) may be taken once or twice a day; but, as the system of blood-vessels are frequently overloaded, in consequence of the kidneys not performing their office, and as the secretion of urine is immediately from the mass of blood, it is good practice to employ a diuretic medicine with an aperient, as the oil of juniper in the mass of the pills, or an infusion of the buchu leaves or juniper berries, two or three times a day.

The aperient neutral salts, as Glauber's, the Epsom, Rochelle, and the saline aperient waters, so frequently prescribed to obviate costiveness in a plethoric habit predisposed to apoplexy, by reducing the temperature of the abdomen, has often a very pernicious effect. The objection to this class of aperient medicines, apply with greater force to cases of costiveness in plethoric habits predisposed to apoplexy, than any other species of costiveness.

The shower-bath, or the application of cold water to the

head every morning by means of a napkin, the asarabæea snuff (a pinch once a day), to increase the secretion from the nostrils, flannel socks to the feet, exercise (walking), and abstemious diet, are necessary auxiliaries ; and if attended with symptoms of an impending fit, copious abstraction of blood from a vein.

Mr. Abernethy, speaking of the "information he has obtained by dissection, relative to the causation of other diseases by those of the digestive organs," observes: the reciprocal sympathy which exists between the brain and the digestive organs, is generally admitted; but the kind and the degree of the effects arising from this sympathy is not, perhaps, in general, sufficiently understood. These organs mutually increase each other's disorder ; till the affection of the sensorium leads to the greatest disturbance of the nervous functions, and even those of the mind.

All this may happen without any visible disease of the brain. Dr. Kirkland particularly directed the attention of medical men to nervous apoplexy; and the observations which have been made since his time have proved, that not only a general derangement of the functions of the nervous system producing apoplexy, but also partial effects of a similar nature, causing hemiplegia and paralysis, may take place, without any visible change of structure in the brain. I have, says Mr. Abernethy, met with numerous instances of this kind ; but could not determine whether the affections were merely nervous, or whether they were produced or aggravated by disorder of the digestive organs. I only know, that the patients died, affected by apoplexy, hemiplegia, or mere local paralysis, without any derangement in the evident structure of the brain. I may also mention, that I formerly examined the brains of three persons who died in a comatose state, in consequence of the metastasis of rheumatism. In these cases no morbid appearance was observed in the brain, except some slight marks of inflammation of the pia mater. It therefore appears clearly to me, that disorder and a considerable diminution of the nervous functions may take place, without any organic affection of the brain. The perfect recovery of patients, which sometimes happens after such disorders, may also be considered as additional evidence of there having been, in such instances, no organic disease of the brain.

Giddiness is generally considered an indication of the brain being compressed, or rather oppressed, by over-distended blood-vessels ; but it is a symptom both of plenitude and depletion, and is an uniform precursor of fainting after the loss of blood. Indeed, every practitioner of experience and observation must



be aware that cases of giddiness frequently occur, in which it is often difficult to determine whether it be the effect of congestion of blood-vessels, or some disordered condition of the brain, or sympathetic, of an affection of the stomach or bowels. The late Dr. Baillie acknowledged that he was often at a loss to determine the cause of giddiness; and, whenever it was not clear, he generally ordered an abstraction of six or eight ounces of blood by cupping, as a test of its nature. If this treatment afforded no relief, and especially if it aggravated the complaint, he recommended the following:—

Dr. BAILLIE'S *Draught for Nervous Giddiness.*

Take of camphorated julep, seven ounces;  
powdered valerian root, three drachms;  
compound spirit of ammonia, three drachms;  
carbonate of soda, three drachms;  
tincture of cascarilla, six drachms.

Mix.

Three table-spoonfuls to be taken three times a-day.

In general we may judge of the state of the blood-vessels of the brain by the appearance of the eyes, particularly if the vessels of the external tunic be considerably distended; this, however, does not afford a certain indication; but, when with this appearance the giddiness is increased, by positions of the body that favour the afflux of blood to the head, as stooping, looking upwards, lying down, &c., there can be little doubt of the complaint being congestion of the vessels of the head. We have known patients who had scarcely been free for one month from attacks of giddiness for fifty years, which were sometimes attended with a degree of loss of sense and motion nearly approaching to apoplexy, but who always experienced an aggravation of the complaint from bleeding. They all died at an advanced age of diseased bowels. Flatulence is a common cause of giddiness, probably by distending the stomach and bowels, so as to compress the vessels of the belly, and check the return of blood from the head. In such case, it is clear the object of practice is to expel the gas accumulated in the alimentary canal by a stimulant (as brandy or spirit of sal volatile), and that abstraction of blood would prove injurious. A clergyman of Herefordshire, apparently predisposed to apoplexy, always had recourse to the following gout cordial, whenever he was affected with giddiness, in direct opposition to the advice of his physician, the late Dr. Campbell; and by this practice, and attending to his bowels, he lived to a good old age: and the Doctor was at length so satisfied of the benefit he derived from it, that he had recourse to it himself whenever he was affected with giddiness, although apparently produced by

cerebral congestion, and he thought he thereby prolonged his life many years.

Take of the best Turkey rhubarb, sliced, half an ounce ;  
 the lesser cardamom seeds, bruised, six drachms ;  
 hay saffron, three drachms ;  
 orange peel, bruised, two ounces and a half ;  
 spirit of the buchu leaves, one quart.

Mix.

After standing in a bottle, well corked, for a fortnight (during which the liquor should be shaken once a day), strain the liquor through fine gauze, for use. The dose is from two table-spoonfuls to a wine glassful, according to the degree of pain or spasms in the stomach or bowels:

It has been supposed, that a stimulus applied to the stomach, when the vessels of the brain are over-distended, might so far increase the determination of blood to the head, as to occasion apoplexy; but may not a stimulus to the stomach rather relieve the brain, by promoting the circulation in the stomach and bowels? Apoplexy in elderly subjects is generally the effect of venous plenitude; and in such cases, when the congestion is local, we conceive stimulants are necessary to enable the vessels to transmit their contents to the heart.

It appears to us somewhat strange that the ancient and modern physicians, in their different modes of unloading the sanguiferous system, should have entirely disregarded those medicines which increase the secretion of urine, or in cases of plethora neglect the secretion of the kidneys, a fluid which is more immediately separated from the blood than the evacuations from the intestines, to which they paid so much attention. It is very seldom, in cases of over-distention of the system of blood-vessels, that a physician makes any inquiry respecting the quantity of urine the patient evacuates daily, and never under the idea of its having any thing to do with the state of the circulation. The urine being separated immediately from the blood by the kidneys, there can be no doubt that plenitude is very often the consequence of a sluggish state of the kidneys; and we have known many patients of observation, on suffering from fulness, take a diuretic article, as gin, infusion of wild earrot seed, parsley root, &c., to increase the secretion of urine, and which they found to produce the desired effect. When the kidneys do not perform their duty, the watery part of the blood generally escapes by the exhalents into the cellular substance or some cavity of the body, producing general or local dropsy; and if this did not ensue, the sanguiferous system would be so overloaded, that a rupture of a vessel would probably take place in the brain, so as to occasion fatal apoplexy, or in the

lungs. In inflammatory fevers there is generally a paucity of urine; and it is probable that the saline mixture, nitre, and other diuretic medicines, prove beneficial, chiefly by promoting the secretion of urine. A diuretic medicine is therefore an important addition to an aperient one in cases of plethora, or when administered as a preventive of apoplexy to people predisposed to the disease. Long experience has satisfied us that, in cases of plethora, it is nearly of as much importance to attend to the secretion of the kidneys as to the state of the bowels; and that plenitude of the sanguiferous system is more frequently the consequence of sluggishness of the kidneys, than of the intestinal canal. An asthmatic fit is so generally preceded by a paucity of urine, that all asthmatics are satisfied of the importance of keeping up the action of the kidneys. We advise those who are disposed to plethora, and, from their make, to apoplexy, in their attention to the intestinal canal, not to lose sight of the kidneys. The gout cordial we have recommended is not only aperient, but diuretic. If it should not be sufficiently aperient, six drachms or an ounce of senna leaves (bruised) may be added to it. The spirit of the infusion of the buchu leaves is the most certain diuretic medicine with which we are acquainted. It may be taken in the same manner as gin, to which it is preferred as a cordial, by the English merchants residing at the Cape of Good Hope.

When apoplexy has taken place, the patient not having the power of swallowing, a solution of the cathartic extract (half a drachm or two scruples), in eight ounces of an infusion of juniper berries or buchu leaves, should be introduced into the stomach by means of Read's stomachic syringe. It being of great importance in such cases to bring the bowels into action, the operation of this composition on the intestines and kidneys should be promoted by a lavement of a solution of aloes in either of the above infusions. In some cases of apoplexy, a few drops of the croton oil, rubbed over the tongue and soft palate, have excited purging. If effusion of blood has not taken place in the head, an emetic may also be introduced into the stomach (as ten grains of sulphate of zinc, with half an ounce of ipecacuan wine, in half a pint of warm water), with the view of removing the local congestion, by promoting the circulation in the extremities, the viscera, and skin, and of propelling the blood through the distended vessels. With the beneficial effects of spontaneous vomiting in cases of impending apoplexy, most experienced practitioners are acquainted; and after abstraction of blood from a vein, there is little fear of its doing mischief, although the afflux of blood to the brain is evidently increased during the operation. Where the success of an operation of nature is nearly uniform, we are justified in imitating her.



## OF DROPSY SUCCEEDING AFFECTIONS OF THE LIVER.

By Dr. ROBERTON.

This is one of the most general consequences attending a long protracted diseased state of the liver. It, however, may arise either immediately from a diseased obstruction to the circulation of blood through the liver, in consequence of that organ being in a consolidated, scirrhus state, or it may be merely a consequence of the general relaxation of the body, so frequently an attendant on long protracted liver complaints. Doubtless, in some instances, both these causes may exist at once.

I shall here make a few remarks on the generally prevailing opinions concerning that morbid accumulation of fluid which we term dropsy. Accelerated action and an increased effusion of that fluid which constitutes dropsy, have often been mistaken by even the most celebrated medical authors, as proceeding from a somewhat similar cause; and from this very great mistake has arisen much perplexity, and often a total impossibility to explain some of the phenomena of this disease. Instead, however, of these states (accelerated action and increased effusion) arising from a similar condition of the vessels, they have their origin and immediate existence under totally different circumstances from each other. Accelerated action is an increase of the animal powers, and can only be caused by the application of stimuli, either to the individual part, or to the general system, while accelerated effusion, (except, indeed, in a few instances of pressure causing some immediate impediment to the venous circulation) instead of its requiring accelerated action, is wholly a consequence of diminished action. We may even adduce dropsy to prove what I have now asserted, and this disease has again and again been brought forward, at various times, by others who have entertained different opinions on this subject.

In dropsy we know that there exists much general debility, and to give an increase and consequently more forcible action, to certain vessels of the body, in such a state of reduced vigour, than what even the same parts possessed in health, is altogether inconsistent with rational reasoning, and directly in opposition to that uniform regularity and beauty, which pervades every organ of the animal economy. Under such states of debility as exist in dropsy, there is no earthly necessity for having recourse to a supposed accelerated action, to explain the phenomena of that disease, especially that form of it which exists under a long protracted liver complaint, where the general habit is always in the most depraved state of action; for the same want of power, and consequent want of action, which renders the absorbents

unable to take up the morbidly effused lymph, also renders the exhalents lax, and consequently unable to retain the naturally secreted fluid in a healthy way. In gleet, and in leucorrhœa and various other diseases, where we know such discharges are consequences of relaxation, who would, for a moment, imagine that such increase of secretion was in consequence of increased action? No one: and the same argument applicable to these diseases is applicable also to dropsy. I need say no more in proof of what must seem to every one so very evident—that increased action, in no set or class of vessels, produces dropsy, but the directly opposite state, viz. that of debility, both in the exhalents and in the absorbents; and it actually requires both an increase of force and of action, to the general system, and consequently to all these vessels, before we can permanently restore these parts to their healthy condition, and this in all cases must be done before we can calculate on having effected a permanent removal of the disease.

In treating of pressure applied to certain parts, to such extent as to obstruct the venous circulation, and thereby produce dropsy, Dr. Wm. Saunders, in his work on the liver, in common with many others, labours under great perplexity, in endeavouring to account for what he supposes to be the increased action of the exhalents, and the diminished action of the absorbents, in the production of that disease. He is decidedly of opinion that dropsy can exist only from a diminution in the force and action of the absorbents, while the same excess of effusion must also have for its existence, an excess of vascular force and action! With regard also to the immediate action of the vessels causing an unnaturally great secretion of bile, Dr. Wm. Saunders applies a somewhat similar theory to account for it. He observes, that “to produce an increased secretion of bile, it is plain that there must be increased action of the branches of the vena portarum, and an acceleration of fluids through those branches: hence a condition of the vessels is induced, approaching, in some respects, to that of inflammation, with this difference, that it is an inflammation in which the vein, or secreting vessel, is more concerned than the artery or nutrient vessel.” In this instance, however, I should again venture to differ in opinion from that very judicious physician; for I do not think that almost any instance of increased secretion of bile, requires either any thing like inflammation, or an acceleration in the actions of the vena portarum, for that purpose. It would be equally consistent to urge, that a morbid increase of other secretions existed in consequence of an acceleration or inflammatory state of their neighbouring vessels. We know, for in-

stance, that increased perspiration is most frequent when the whole system is reduced to the greatest state of debility, and that morbid increase of secretion, in the male, causing gleet and seminal emission, and in the female, leucorrhœa, owe their existence, at least their continuance, to a similar state of debility. It is exactly similar to the morbidly increased secretion of bile—the vessels immediately secreting that fluid become diseased, and in common with every other secreting organ, especially in the first stages of their disease, the secretion is rather augmented than diminished. This opinion of Dr. Saunders is somewhat similar to that respecting edema and dropsy, which I think I have previously shewn to be quite erroneous. These states he also thinks may exist either generally throughout the system, or be confined to one particular part. The whole of his opinions on this subject are built on the well known fact that pressure applied to impede venous circulation, while arterial action is still going on, causes that effusion termed dropsy. To prove his position, that venous obstruction causes edema, he gives an example, while a plain statement of the fact was sufficient for any reasonable being.

Every one must have observed the edema caused by a tight garter, or any similar cause of obstructed venous circulation, but although this is a plain and demonstrable fact, it does not follow that it is only under such circumstances that dropsy exists, for, indeed, I conceive that this alone, although certainly calculated to produce edema, is very seldom, if ever, the sole cause of dropsy. General dropsy, at least that which exists from a morbid state of the liver, thus seems to require not only sufficient pressure to impede the venous circulation, but also that depraved constitutional derangement which always accompanies such affections. Dr. Saunders, however, does not only urge that general dropsy is caused by this obstructed venous circulation, but he will have it that causes may be applied to produce this edema, and that such edema may exist without its being at all necessary to suppose any existing disease either in the exhalents or absorbents! I should like to know how it is possible that such an action, and such an effect, so contrary to the laws of health, could exist without the presence of disease? It seems to me impossible. Edema in this, and indeed in every instance, although Dr. Saunders might reckon it no disease, was certainly caused by a morbid secretion, and no morbid secretion will proceed from a healthy surface.

To constitute the most perfect state of healthy action, in every organ of the body, such parts must not have even the smallest particle of foreign or inactive matter applied to them. Because



it is alone the presence of the various quantities, and various qualities, of such foreign, and consequently injurious substances, that constitutes every disease to which human nature is liable, both in regard to its nature and severity, and this state may exist, either from the presence of some distinct foreign substance irritating the parts, or simply from a morbidly enlarged condition of any natural organ of the body. The clearest proof, indeed, that no enlargement of parts can take place without producing disease, is more especially demonstrable where such enlargement occurs in parts that are nearly connected with the prolongation of animal life, as there their presence is more conspicuously demonstrable by their effects. Certain deranged states, of some other less important parts of the body, may often exist, and even give so little trouble that the general observer may deem it no disease, while, in other parts, the same sort of causes may produce instant death.

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#### USE OF SMELL.

At first view, it might appear that smell was useful in determining whether fruits were sufficiently ripe; and in some cases it undoubtedly is so, as in the instances of apples and melons. But what will be said to the fragrance of some species of plants and flowers, such as the lemon-thyme, and geranium, which have the exact odour of ripe lemons, limes, and oranges, though nobody, we imagine, ever thought of eating these bitter plants, merely on account of their odour? Or of feasting on walnut leaves, because they smell like ripe apples? The prussic acid, the most deadly of all poisons, smells strongly of peach blossoms.

As in the case of taste, we can by habit be brought not only to endure but to relish what is offensive; we can in the same way be habituated to like what is offensive to the smell; snuff, for example.

Dr. Reid observes, that nature (we would say Providence) seems studiously to have set bounds to the pleasures and pains which we have by smell and taste; and to have confined them within very narrow limits, that we might not place any part of our happiness in them; there being hardly any smell or taste so disagreeable, that use will not make it tolerable, and at last, perhaps, agreeable; nor any so agreeable, as not to lose its relish by constant use.

Frequent repetition, or long continued smelling to any fragrant substance, blunts the sensation arising from the odour. Thus, when fragrant flowers are in a room, we perceive their odour very strongly when we first enter, but in a short time it

ceases to be perceived. Even the most delightful fragrance of a flower garden, moist with the morning dew, or with light Summer showers, soon fails to affect the sense of smell. Pungent and disagreeable smells, however, never cease to be felt altogether, though they cease by continuance or repetition to be disagreeable.

*Antipathies to some Smells.*

There are some smells to which individuals have an unconquerable and unaccountable antipathy. The smell of a cat, of musk, or of cheese, will sometimes throw individuals of this description into a faint. This has, by some, been referred to early association; but this will not explain all the circumstances; for those affected with such antipathies will, by smell, discover the existence of a cat in a room, though it be ever so carefully concealed, and though it be imperceptible to every other person.

It does not hold universally, but in many instances, the sense of smell seems to act as a guardian to the lungs, what is offensive to the one being injurious to the other. The case of the oxymuriatic gas, formerly mentioned, is an example, and the fumes of several metals and minerals, are but too well known to be similar.

The channel of the nose is not only a guardian to the lungs in admonishing us of impure and noxious airs and exhalations, but it acts as a preparatory apparatus in warming the air before it reach the lungs. The air, therefore, in a state of great coldness can never get into the lungs, and, for the most part, its temperature must be to them nearly equable.

*Disorders of Smell.*

It is this wise arrangement, also, which exposes the membrane of the nostrils more to inflammations and disorders than otherwise must have fallen upon the lungs, where they would be greatly more dangerous. Nor would it alter this explanation, though we agree with the opinion of Hippocrates, that consumptions are always, or chiefly, caused by the defluxions or mucous falling down from the head upon the lungs. This may happen, but not in one instance of a thousand does a cold in the channel of the nostrils produce consumption in the lungs.

*Sneezing.*

When offensive matter gets into the nose, or when the membrane or its mucus pipes are any way obstructed, we make a very violent effort to throw off what is offending, by sneezing. This is done by drawing in a short but strong breath, and suddenly forcing out the air through the nostrils by a violent and almost convulsive effort of the diaphragm and other muscles exercised in breathing. Excessive sneezing has sometimes been known to produce blindness from the concussion which it causes in the brain affecting the nerves of the eyes.

## ON THE SPITTING OF BLOOD.

Nothing requires greater management and care in the treatment than spitting of blood, which if allowed to proceed with impunity, though it may not be distressing at first, nor any ill consequences appear to arise from it, will, in the end, lead to the most serious results. There are various causes which may give rise to the rupture of the smaller vessels independent of accident. The air in hot climates by inflaming the blood may render it too acrimonious, which in a delicate constitution may corrode the vessels, and cause them to give way and exude their contents. Cold, also, may have the power of so contracting the vessels, and compressing their compass, that they are unable to hold their due proportion of fluid, by which means they become over distended and burst. Hippocrates was of this opinion, and affirmed that cold was a great enemy to the breast and lungs, producing coughs and spittings of blood.

The delicate, therefore, ought to take especial care at this season of the year to guard against cold in the chest, which but too frequently lays the foundation of consumption, against which we cannot too strongly guard our readers. Amongst

*The Errors of Diet,*

as producing this complaint, is living too plentifully—partaking of rich, high seasoned viands—drinking wine—spirituous liquors, &c.; indeed any thing that will tend to inflame or rarify the blood, and by that means cause a breach in the vessels. Dr. Willis was of opinion that the Bath waters were apt to occasion spitting of blood, from causing an over distention; we are not prepared, however, to coincide with the worthy doctor in his opinion, farther probably than supposing that excess of any kind would be likely to produce the disorder, independent of their medicinal effect. Suppression of the various natural discharges, such as the menses, the bleeding piles, and the like, are very apt to bring on hæmorrhages, because where there is either a superabundance of blood in the vessels or lungs, caused by a want of some regular drain, the weak vessels being surcharged, must give way in the most delicate parts, which may be by no means easily stopped. We therefore recommend that no natural evacuation be interfered with, as almost invariably it is designed for some beneficial purpose.

*Violent Exercises, Excessive Labour,*

and straining of all kinds, contribute to occasion the rupture of the smaller vessels, and in consequence spitting of blood. The



great rush of blood, for instance, to the head, will, if it cannot find vent by some of the blood-vessels, and escape through the nose, frequently cause instant death. Straining to vomit, to go to stool, hard labour, running, fighting, violent sneezing, a strong inspiration, shouting aloud, fencing too hard and long together, carrying great loads, or lifting heavy weights, &c. will produce it: hence wrestlers, runners, hunters, dancers, porters, and such persons are subject to spitting of blood. Amongst

### *The Passions of the Mind,*

Anger is the chief cause of this distemper, for it promotes the hasty motion of the blood and spirits, and tosses them in so violent a manner, that it can be no great wonder if the blood, hurried on far beyond its usual motion, should cause a breach of some vessel in the system, and should that vessel happen to be large, the consequences can be easily surmised.

To guard against the evils resulting from the bursting of a blood-vessel, whether from accident or otherwise, it is essential that the utmost care should be taken to prevent its continuance, and when stopped that it should not return lest it should produce an ulcer. This can be done by regimen only, and the greatest care in using no violent exercise; fasting moderately, and refraining at all times from excess both in eating and drinking; occasional blood-letting, when the person is of a full habit of body, will also be beneficial, and probably entirely eradicate any predisposition to the disorder in the patient.

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### ON THE KNOWLEDGE OF THE CONSTITUTION.

Few persons, we believe, notwithstanding the assertion, "that every man past forty is either a fool or a physician," knows his constitution, and what it will bear, either in the way of excess or abstinence. Now, though this seems to be a sweeping assertion, it is certainly too true; and the lamentable situation to which many reduce themselves by their indulgence in every kind of excess, is but too powerful an illustration of our position. How very few, for instance, though complaining violently of their bad and slow digestion, will debar themselves the gratification of partaking of a dish that pleases their palate, or refrain from a wine the peculiar flavour of which they are fond? Exercise too, that great promoter of health, even in the hands of the physician, without whose aid his prescriptions might frequently be thrown behind the fire, is neglected by the sedentary, and those whose avocations lead them to adopt a sitting posture, and confine themselves to close rooms. The pure air, instead of

being sought by them as the physic best suited to their complaints, is shunned or totally neglected, and for no other reason than it occasions the waste, as they term it, of time ; when, if the hours that are idly spent by such were kept an account of, it would shame them to look at it. Drugs, draughts, and powders are the means they take to relieve themselves from their want of caution, and time but too truly proves they *knew not their constitution*. We shall endeavour to give some rules for the guidance of those who may be inclined to attend to our warning voice, and if we are not attended to in the heyday and spring of youth, we are certain that our cautions *will* one day be obeyed.

In the first place then, it is necessary to premise, that in

### *Relaxed Habits,*

Exercise is not proper, viz. those whose bowels are apt to be loose and weak after it ; at least none that is of a violent description. We do not allude here to those whose bowels are surcharged with slime and gross humours ; to them, exercise is most beneficial, carrying out of the body all glutinous matter, which causes belching, twitching, faintnesses, watchings, and a thousand other disagreeable symptoms. There are, however, some who have a natural defect in their organs of digestion, which though it cannot be amended by the art of medicine, can yet be alleviated by the patient himself, taking care to suit his diet entirely to his stomach, if his stomach will not agree with what he chooses to put into it. Rice, boiled without butter, calf, sheep, and cow feet and heels, jellies, and such like are proper ; avoiding all kinds of hashes, flummery, butter, cream, and veal. Wine and water, whichever best seems to suit the stomach, will be proper for drink. Persons of

### *A Dry Constitution,*

should forbear hard labour, as well as flesh meats, and should confine themselves to wine and water. Labour forces off all thin humours, and makes the remaining gluish and clammy, and flesh becomes jelly at last ; you have, therefore, nothing to do but dilute if indulgence in meat is essential to your comfort, and you will prefer the gratification of your appetite to health. We can only advise what is proper to be done, and if that be not attended to, then do the best we can for those who transgress our rules, and will force nature out of her path. If you eat much, you must work or exercise much, and if you use much exercise you will eat heartily. Exercise wastes us, while food repairs us. Eating without exercise is cramming, and more

resembles a preparation for the shambles, than human indulgence in proper nourishment. We shall resume the subject.

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PHYSIOLOGICAL, PATHOLOGICAL, AND SURGICAL OBSERVATIONS. BY MR. ABERNETHY\*.

Mr. Abernethy began his Lecture, by describing the bones of the face; and, in the course of his disquisitions on the nasal process of the superior maxillary bone, he said, "In the inside of this process I perceive a groove, which is for the lachrymal bag, and continues downward forming a sort of canal; not a complete canal, indeed, but pretty much of a complete canal. It goes down the bone, and is called the ductus nasalis. It is the canal for the tears to run into the nose. And it is of great importance that you should understand this; because, if you are to lay open the lachrymal bag for the purpose of clearing away any obstruction in it, and if you are to apply force to it, it is of the utmost importance that you should use that force in a right direction; for, if you used it in a wrong direction, you would be going against the bone. But, luckily, the ductus nasi runs nearly perpendicularly; not exactly so, but nearly perpendicularly, having a slight inclination backwards.

Then I see, at the right of this nasal process, a sort of ridge; a ridge across which the inferior os spongiosum is extended. It is a bone as light as possible, convex on that side next the lamella, and concave on the other side. I don't know that we have any right to consider it a separate bone; I may say, it is soldered to this ridge; and therefore, the ductus nasi terminates below the inferior os spongiosum. Now I may tell you, with a view to impress this anatomical fact on your memories, that on the Continent they don't adopt the same mode of clearing away the obstruction that we do; they clear it away by putting an instrument into the nose, and turning it up into the ductus nasi. If you go into an hospital abroad, you will see many instruments lying, which are used for that purpose. To me it seems a bad mode of treatment, for it requires great talent, and a great deal of knack and ingenuity, safely to introduce the instrument. And where you are obliged to use a great deal of force, it is very likely that you may use it in a wrong place."

The Lecturer proceeded until he had described the antrum,

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\* We have at the request of several Correspondents undertaken to give a part of the Lectures of Mr. Abernethy. Many of our readers are aware, no doubt, how he lectures his PATIENTS—it will at least not be uninteresting to them to see him in a new character.



which he thought had better be called the superior maxillare sinus, though the old technical term was antrum maxillare. He then said, "The disease in the antrum is a very, very important subject indeed. And I always take occasion to mention diseases; where I think they will impress anatomical facts on your memories, and where the importance of those facts may be shown. The disease of the antrum, then I say, makes a great subject in surgery. A man may have a kind of chronic inflammation in the cavities of his antrum—a kind of morbid secretion of stuff in his antrum. It might have originated from the tooth-ache affecting the lining of the antrum; and a very pretty predicament he is then in. Egad, when he is in bed, on turning round, a quantity of stuff will come into his nose, most disgusting to himself, and most horribly disagreeable to his bed-fellow, if he has one. (Much laughter.) An aching pain in the cheek, and a dreadful discharging of matter, will torment a man in that way for years and years. What is to be done? Draw one of his teeth, to be sure; and, from the socket, penetrate into the antrum. But which tooth are you to draw? is the question. There is an important question. It luckily so happens, that all the grinding teeth of the jaw are below the cavity of the antrum. There are two small grinders, three larger ones, and all those grinding teeth are situated below the cavity of the antrum, and if you put the probe through the socket of the first grinder, it goes into the cavity of the antrum. Turning the head far back, and putting your instrument in, where does it go? Why, into the cavity of the antrum. And, luckily for the benefit of memory, it happens that all the sockets of the grinding teeth are placed below the cavity of the antrum. Which tooth, then, should I draw? Why, I would rather draw a rotten one than a sound one. You may draw which you please. Then putting a gimblet up into the socket, you pierce the cavity of the antrum; put in a piece of bougie, and having pierced the socket, it then lies snug between the teeth in the jaw. What is the patient to do? Why, when he washes out the antrum, he has only to pull out the bougie, clear away all the matter, and there is a subsidence of the disease. And many many persons have I seen relieved from a state of great discomfort by an operation of this sort. But this is a trifle.

"A morbid state of the membrane may be induced, and it may throw forth a fungus; that fungus growing, fills the whole cavity of the antrum, sprouting forth in all directions till the bone becomes absorbed, till that bone which forms the strong part of the cheek becomes soft, the orbital plate becomes soft; until the fungus will make its way into the socket of the eye, shove

the very eye out of its socket, and until the fungus itself will actually shoot out of the mouth, get into the nostrils, and fill up the nostrils, and what then? Why, just see a man in the dreadful state of having his eye turned out of its socket, and the fungus shooting out of his mouth, and growing up into his nostrils; and you say, this is horrible. I'll have nothing to do with it. And, in many cases, you would be right. You had better have nothing to do with it. But though many of these cases are the results of morbid actions which nothing can cure, if you neglect to do any thing at all times, in the interim you would neglect to serve many persons who might be most materially comforted. What should be done, then? Why, when you see the fungus growing there, it is your duty to take it out of the mouth. Trefine the bottom of the antrum; put your finger into it, and scoop it out. A most bloody scene it is! A most desperate hæmorrhage ensues! I have seen a quart of blood lost when this was performing. But this does not frighten a surgeon who understands his profession, for he knows it is the discharge of blood from a multitude of small vessels; and if he saw the same discharge from a large one he would be horribly afraid. He would say, if this was a discharge from one vessel the patient would die, but it being from a great many, when he becomes faint, they will stop bleeding. But you don't give him time to faint; scoop it out, put in a bit of sponge—wrench it in—tell the patient to bite it, bathe his face with cold water, and what becomes of him then? There is no more bleeding; after a little time the sponge becomes loose, you draw it out, and any thing collected in the antrum comes into the mouth, and thus, if I may so say, you prevent the walls of the antrum giving way. Now I have seen several people made comfortable in this way. It is true the fungus may grow again, but then you may scoop it out with your finger; you may put your finger into the antrum and scoop it entirely out. Still I am aware that all this is of a cancerous nature; it is a morbid action which will go on and extend beyond the antrum, even between the different sinuses of the head. I have seen some osseous matter formed sometimes in the different sinuses of the head. I remember one case particularly, as showing the morbid nature of it, and yet showing that all the cases were not of that horrible nature which would prohibit a surgeon from interfering with them. I shall relate one instance, of a poor man who came into this Hospital—a poor fellow who had this morbid growth in his antrum. He had his cheek in a dreadful state, and he applied to a quack, who put a large caustic on the tumid cheek—a large and sharp caustic. It made a slough; the slough



came off, and it healed, leaving a hole by which a probe could be put into the cavity of his antrum. He was relieved so far, but there were morbid actions set up; the bone was affected as well as the membrane, and the bone gradually threw forth a fungus. There was a little aperture, and that little aperture increased in circumference. There was a bony substance thrown out from the aperture, which, at first, seemed like a little cup on his cheek, and it gradually increased until it became like a basin—like a large breakfast basin, the bottom of which laid on the antrum covered over with a thick skin; it had gone to such a degree, that unless you had sent M. Le Dran to it, there was no other surgeon who would undertake it—none here, I can tell you; and, to be sure, there are many operations set about which don't seem to me to be vindicable; you had better let the poor creatures die. In looking at the French reports, I can read of taking away the whole of the maxillaria superiora bones, and leaving only the hollow jaw! Why, to have shot the man with a bullet would have been much more humane than that. To have let him die, as he would have done, would have been, what I should call, only christianity; to have done that would have been doing to others as you would be done unto; and much the better way, than making a person such an object as long as he lived. Well, this poor chap used to go to a quack of the name of Doctor Bussey, and he bound it up for him from time to time. He also often came here, and I always told him, if you like to have it treated so, be it so; but I would let it alone. I would neither endure the pain, for it is altogether unavailing, nor would I throw away my money in such a way; but he went again and again to this quack, until he could bear it no longer. Well, I was going to say, that many of these actions extend beyond the limits of the antrum; but if you can take away the distressing cause—if you can take the fungus out of the mouth, you may render very effectual service to many people.”

Mr. Abernethy resumed his lecture until he had described the situation, &c., of the ossa nasi, two in number, forming an arch for the protection of the nasal lamella, which supports the ethmoid bone. He then said: “This arch is a very strong arch indeed, protecting the nasal lamella, and how important is this! If it were not so, a man having a blow on the nose might have his crista galli driven in upon his brain. What's to prevent it? Many a man has his crista galli driven in upon his brain, producing cerebral inflammation, and the man dies in consequence; I have seen accidents of that kind. Now what's to be done if a man gets a blow on his nose, and has his crista galli driven in upon the brain? What's to be done? why, you must try to



pull it out again. You have to raise up the ossa nasi, introduce an instrument lined with sponge, raise up the depression, and then pull it out. But, luckily, this is a very rare accident, and don't believe that every broken nose is followed with such frightful consequences. You see the nose is excessively well constructed to elude the effects of violence; the blow lights on the elastic part of the nose, which breaks the effect of it, and the blow may operate on the nose without driving in the nasal lamella. Faith, if every one had their crista galli driven in, when they have their nasal lamella broken, I myself would have had it, because on one occasion, when I was riding, my horse's head and my own came pretty near together. I was riding, and on putting the spur to him and pulling the bridle, he threw up his head and struck me with it right upon the nose. The blood flowed from it, just like as if it had been streaming from an arm after you had introduced the lancet. I got off; got into a stable near at hand; washed my face, and squeezed the bones into their proper situation as well as I could. The people were certainly very kind, and wished to send for a surgeon to me; but I told them I would rather they sent for a hackney coach (much laughter), which they did, and I went home in it. I then perceived, for the first time in my life, an imperfection in my sight. I could not see more than two-thirds of an object. First of all, however, I should tell you, my vision was indistinct, but I found it arose from the eclipse of the third of every object on the right hand. I ascertained this particularly as I went home, because if I saw such a long name as my own, for instance, A-ber-ne-thy, in a bookseller's shop window, or any such place, I could see A-ber-knee, but I could not see the *thigh* at all. (Loud laughter.) Well, I looked with one eye, then I looked with the other, and I looked with both; but still I perceived that the third of every object was eclipsed, on what I may call my right side. Now this sort of case is alluded to by Dr. Woollaston, and he contends that it might be a defect in the optic nerves. Well, I was telling all this to a medical friend of mine—a very clever man, and he said, it was impossible. I said, well, I don't know whether it is impossible or not, but I know that what I tell you is true. It afterwards happened that he had a fall from his horse, I believe, or something of that kind, and he had the same imperfection of sight, the eclipse of the objects being on the opposite side. I said to him, there was only one thing I regretted, which was, that when I was in that state, I had not squinted, to have seen how the things would have looked then. He told me he was convinced it arose from the nerve. But I said, did you squint? O gad, no, said he, I never thought of squinting.

But since that time I have been entertained with it often, and often without having had any blow ; and I have on those occasions squinted too, and it is just the same. And let those who can account for it as arising from a decussation of the nerve, do it ; my own opinion is, that it arises from the irregular actions of the retina. You know there are people who see ghosts, and goblins, and so on ; not blue-devils ; I suppose they don't see any of those, but they absolutely see men and women ; you know all that, I dare say.

“There is a very curious case related, of a man who was a well known character, and a man of sense—where it was said, he used to see a number of people in the room with him. Now, he himself has described the whole of the phenomenon, and all the adjuncts to it. He has said, after taking a cup of coffee, or tea, or so on, they came into his room in great numbers ; and as he got better, and less nervous, he has only seen the arms or legs of the persons, without seeing any other part of them. Now this is all an irregular action of the retina. A gentleman sitting in his library one day, reading or writing, on turning round his head, saw, sitting in a chair, a woman in a red cloak. And he said, how came you in here, good woman ? The woman said nothing. What is the meaning of your being here, woman ? No answer was made. You have no right to be here. Go out of the room. She took no notice of him. He got up and rang the bell for the servant. The servant came in. Turn this woman out. What woman, Sir ? Why the woman in a red cloak. There's no woman, nor any red cloak, Sir. Well, go and fetch the doctor for me ; tell him I am ill, and I wish to speak to him. The man, however, was not to be frightened by this, because he knew it was a delusion of his sight. Now I have had it so often, that it has been a matter rather of amusement to me, than any thing else. I have stood before a glass, and seen the upper part of my head, and eyes, and nose, very distinctly ; but I never saw that I had any mouth or jaw ; and I have seen my shoulders very well, but all was blank between my nose and shoulders. Why, now I say, what can you make of this, but that it is errors of action, or inactivity in parts of the retina ? Now this is a digression ; this is no part of the lecture ; but I am speaking about the fractures of the ossa nasi, and I am telling you what seems to me to be the surgery of those cases.

“When I finished the bones of the skull, I had a word to say about the sutures ; and having now finished the bones of the upper part of the face, I have still a word to say on that point, and this it is : All the bones are united together by sutures ;



and if there was to be an elaborate account of the sutures given, I don't know to what length it would run. But anatomists have contrived to make one suture out of a number of sutures. They say there is a suture which is called the transverse suture, running between the bones of the head and the bones of the face; and I have seen dreadful things occur here. There was a poor waggoner, whose head was crushed between two cart wheels going in different directions, on Clapham Common, and his face was literally torn off from the skull. Part of his face hung by the optic nerves. There was no jaw; all was vacant. No raw, half dissected head, could ever equal it. To give you some idea of the horror the scene presented, I may tell you, the nurses of a hospital fainted when they saw the man. He went to the hospital; went to bed; got up to void his urine; went to bed again; and, in about five or six hours, he died. Now it might form a good subject of inquiry, in a medical society, why he died. He did not die from loss of blood; torn arteries will not bleed. He could not have been starved to death in so short a time. Whatever blood he might lose before, he lost none in the hospital to cause his death. Then, why did he die? Now it does so happen, and we have seen that it is a most wise and benevolent circumstance, where such an injury occurs as is actually irreparable, the vital powers decline and cease to act, and people die without any seeming necessity for doing so. It is really very curious, but true, that the most extensive injuries are generally unproductive of pain. I say, it seems to be wise and benevolent, that it should be so ordered. There are plenty of facts which you will collect in the pursuit of your profession, that seem to warrant metaphorical phrases, such as John Hunter would have introduced. Nature takes the alarm from something having occurred, apparently without any necessity; or Nature, conscious of the injury, relinquishes the contest, and the patient sinks and dies. But however much this may be a digression, the ease goes to induce you to remember the sort of connexion that subsists between the bones of the face and the bones of the cranium."

In his lectures on the Bones of the Vertebræ, Mr. Abernethy said, "There is such an immense quantity of elastic matter in the column of bones supporting the head, that the head rides upon it as if placed on a spring machine; and it is very important that this should be so. If it were not, the head would be subject to perpetual jars. There is a very important case related by Mr. Pott—a case of concussion: An officer standing on the deck of a ship, after some sleet and rain had fallen, began to walk upon it; he slipped, and upon feeling his feet go from



under him, he put all his muscles on the stretch to save himself. He came down on his bottom—merely on his bottom, nothing more ; but his head was jarred ; there was a complete concussion ; he was stunned ; an inflammation came on, and he became delirious. Now that's a very capital case. The head received no outward hurt at all."

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#### DISSECTION OF A FEMALE EGYPTIAN MUMMY.

BY DR. GRANVILLE.

This singular relic of antiquity having excited much curiosity, we think a short account of it may not be unacceptable to our readers. It was in a state of more perfect preservation than any hitherto brought to this country. It was enveloped in a multitude of bandages, which appeared to have been soaked in some astringent vegetable solution. The Egyptian priests appear to have been familiar with all the modes of bandaging subsequently employed in surgery. "There is no species of bandage," says Dr. Granville, "which ancient or modern surgery has devised, described, or employed, that did not appear to have been used in securing the surface of the mummy from the external air ; we here meet with the *couvre-chef*, the *scapularium*, the eighteen-tailed bandage, the T. bandage, as well as the *linteum scissum* and *capistrum* ;" and he adds, that they were applied with a neatness and precision that would baffle the imitative power of the most adroit surgeon of the present day ; an eulogium which, however, is qualified by the consideration that the bandages were made of elastic materials, and therefore required no unusual skill to adapt them accurately to the surface of the body. The cuticle was found everywhere wanting, except at the points of the toes and fingers. Dr. Granville supposes it to have been removed by means of lime, as a preparatory step to tanning. The surface was dry and shrivelled, and of a dark brown colour, and the skin, which Dr. Granville asserts to have been tanned, was generally pretty firm and resisting ; but on the inner surface of the thighs and other parts where there are large masses of flesh, it was soft and yielding. The external parts of generation were easily recognized, and the mammæ, which reached as low as the seventh rib, shewed even the nipples and areolæ. The head had been shaved, and the scalp exhibited an eruption which was determined to be the "*Porrigio decalvans*." The brain and membranes were found to have been removed through the nostrils. On opening the chest, its organs were found in their natural situation. Of the abdominal viscera, the liver, the greater

part of the alimentary canal, and one of the kidneys had been removed. Several earthy masses were found in the abdomen, which Dr. Granville conjectures, may have been formed by the mud contained in the waters of the Natron lakes, in which there is reason to believe the body had been immersed. The pelvis was the seat of extensive disease; the right ovary and broad ligament were enveloped in a mass of diseased structure, whilst the Fallopian tube of the same side was perfectly sound and beautifully preserved; and on the left, the contracted remains of an ovarian sac were distinctly visible. Hence Dr. Granville concludes she must have died of diseased ovaria. The muscles and connecting cellular tissue were in a state of astonishing preservation. They were pliant and soft, and could be separated by dissection with as much facility as in a recent body. The joints were flexible; so that others as well as M. Cloquet would appear to have understood the art of preparing flexible skeletons. Dr. Granville argues, that this female must have died between the age of fifty and fifty-five, after bearing children, because, first, there were no marks of decrepitude; and secondly, because he observed that peculiar thinning of the central portion of the *ossa ilia* which M. Chaussier has signalized as occurring at the above age in women who have borne many children. In its exterior figure and size the body resembled the Caucasian or European race, confirming the opinion of Cuvier, who, from the inspection of the heads of various Egyptian mummies, concludes that people to have been of Caucasian extraction. The facial angle of the head is nearly a right angle. Crystals of salts were found on every part of the body, both external and internal; they consisted of the nitrate of potash, muriate, sub-carbonate, and sulphate of soda, with a small proportion of lime. The opinion formed by Dr. Granville respecting the process by which this body was embalmed is, that the brain having been first extracted by the nostrils, and the intestines removed by the anus, the cuticle was destroyed by quick-lime, and the whole body steeped in a mixture of bees-wax and resin, kept melted during several days; that it was next immersed in a solution of the salts enumerated above, and consisting, probably, of the water of the Natron lakes; and that, lastly, the skin was tanned by some vegetable astringent, with which, also, the bandages were impregnated. Dr. Granville has imitated the process on the body of a still born foetus, and has succeeded in producing the fac-simile of an Egyptian mummy, which bids fair to rival the original; for he informs us that it has been kept for three years without exhibiting the slightest trace of decay.



OF THE CONSTRUCTION OF A HOUSE, THE BEST CALCULATED  
FOR THE PRESERVATION OF HEALTH.

When it is considered that a much greater portion of our time is spent within doors than without, it is a circumstance to be wondered at, that more attention is not usually paid to the construction of buildings with a view to health. Indeed there are few houses, whether of larger or smaller dimensions, where some particulars have not been neglected, and where some improvements might not be pointed out. But a few general observations upon this subject are all that the limits of this work will admit of.

The construction of a house must depend upon the nature of the climate, and the ability or wealth of the person by whom it is erected. The ancient system of living in castellated houses, surrounded with moats and ditches full of water, is at last fortunately abandoned. They certainly were unfavourable to health, houses being thus environed with a moist and unwholesome atmosphere. The modern system, where ditches are not permitted, is infinitely preferable.

The principles on which houses ought now to be constructed are simple; they should not be, 1st, too cold; or 2d, too hot; or, 3d, in the smallest degree damp; and, 4th, the air within, should, if possible, be as pure as the air without. The rules regarding these points might be extended even to the apartments which are not inhabited; for store rooms and pantries in a house are extremely unwholesome, if provisions of various sorts, animal as well as vegetable, be kept in them, especially oil, candles, fat, flesh meat, whether in a raw, boiled, or roasted state, pastry, fruit, &c. The larder is frequently very judiciously placed without doors.

1. The means of excluding cold is much facilitated by the invention of glass, and the great improvements which have been made in the management of fuel: but the exclusion of the outward air is now carried to a most injurious excess, for the art of the carpenter is employed to shut it out as a dangerous enemy, instead of its being considered as a useful friend. The air within doors ought to be warmer than that without, because persons are usually in a state of less activity, and are often more thinly clothed, when breathing the former than the latter; but to carry the plan to an extreme is highly injurious, as it renders going out more dangerous than otherwise would be the case. Faust, in his Catechism of Health, gives the following as the signs by



which it may be known whether rooms be clean and contain wholesome air :—

When there are no cobwebs in the corners or on the ceiling of the room, nor dust, nor straw, nor filth of any kind ; when the windows are clean and clear, and no offensive smell or unpleasant sensation is experienced by a person who enters it, that has been just breathing the open air, we may conclude that it is as it ought to be. A habit of uniformity, in the application of heat and cold to an animal body, renders it more sensible of the smallest variation in either, while, by the habit of variety, it will become, in a proportional degree, less susceptible of all such sensations.

2. To prevent the admission of too much heat into a house is fully as necessary, in some countries, as the exclusion of cold in others. In Grand Cairo, for instance, various contrivances are adopted, to moderate heat, as fountains in the middle of their houses, pipes to convey fresh air by grottoes, and high edifices by which their streets are shadowed from the sun. In India, during the hot season, the air in rooms is kept gently in motion, by what they call punkas, or fans, suspended from the ceilings, covered with cotton or silk, and having fringes below. They are kept in motion by a palanquin-boy. In China, also, we are informed, on the most unexceptionable authority, that during warm weather, they have no other door than an open matted skreen, and the windows are either entirely open, or of thin paper only. By this constant ventilation, kept up in their houses both by day and night, they obviate the ill effect that might otherwise be expected from the want of cleanliness, both in their houses and persons. This exemplifies Dr. Lyne's definition of a wholesome house, "where a dog could creep in under the door, and a bird could fly in at the window."

3. Moisture is still more fatal than either heat or cold, which any person who sleeps for a single night in a damp room, (unless he has often been accustomed to such a circumstance,) will soon experience. Hence, the necessity of making the roof secure, and properly filling up and cementing the walls with mortar ; also avoiding the use of sea-stones, which never lose the property of attracting moisture from the atmosphere. Dr. Valangin observes, that the bad effects of the moist and damp air of London, are not a little increased, by the constant washing and wetting of the insides of houses, which is carried to a most unpardonable excess in most northern countries, and shamefully neglected in warmer climates, where the practice of it would be most useful.—The moisture of a wet room or staircase, must evaporate into the surrounding atmosphere.

4. The air also within the house ought, if possible, to be as pure as that without. 1st, In the rooms where we usually stay; 2d, In the rooms where we eat; and, 3d, Above all in the rooms where we sleep.

### *Sitting Rooms.*

The most healthful, as well as comfortable apartments to the individual, are those which enjoy a pure and free circulation of air in Summer, and the cheerful rays of the sun in Winter: a proper size and height are also requisite to constitute a wholesome apartment, for low rooms are detrimental to health, particularly when inhabited by large families, or when the air is carefully excluded by close doors, shutters, curtains, &c.

The sitting rooms ought to be above the ground floor, or in the second story, and they should be so constructed as to admit a free current of air, or at least they ought to be well aired, by opening the windows in dry weather, and leaving the doors open for a certain space of time every day. Sometimes it may be proper to make use of what is called *pumping the room*, or moving the door backwards and forwards for some minutes together. In mere sitting rooms, the air is in general sufficiently pure, the furniture being commonly kept clean, much fresh air being admitted every time the doors are opened, and there being no source of taint or corruption, excepting from the breath of those who live in them.

### *Eating Rooms.*

Every person must be sensible, that the air of a room is rendered impure by the steams of food, and that in proportion to the quality and quantity that is put upon the table. Dr. Willich says, that where crowds of people, and great quantities of provisions dressed with the richest spices of the East and West, contribute to saturate the air with the most heterogeneous particles, which must render the atmosphere very unfit for persons in a delicate state. Strictly speaking, we ought not to sit in the room where we dine or take victuals, until it be aired again. Those who can afford this luxury, should be careful not to stay for hours together over their bottle in the dining room. The bad effects of such contaminated air, are not perceived by the persons continuing their libations after dinner, but are sensibly felt by any one coming in from the fresh air. This circumstance merits particular notice in this country, where it is the practice to sit so long after dinner. Some individuals have adopted the practice of retiring into another apartment immediately after the dishes are removed, and there taking their dessert and wine; but on the whole, that plan has been



found so troublesome and inconvenient, that it has commonly been relinquished; and, indeed, it is only competent for persons of large fortunes, and whose houses are of large dimensions. The only other remedy is, that of opening the sashes of the window when the weather will admit of it, and the plan of letting down the upper sash is certainly to be preferred. I have sometimes thought, that ventilators might be contrived for the upper panes, with painted glass or some other ornaments, which, without disgusting the eye, might secure good air, and might be closed and opened at pleasure.

### *Bed Rooms.*

But the most important apartment of all is the room for repose. If we allow only eight hours in the twenty-four for sleep, though many persons, especially invalids, spend many more hours in their bed-chambers, we shall find that during more than one-third of our time, we breathe the same stagnant impure air, highly impregnated with noxious effluvia. Nothing, therefore, can be more material, not only for invalids, but for persons in health, than the admission of a free circulation of air into their bed-chambers by various ways, and in different degrees, according to the season of the year, and other circumstances.

This may be gradually effected in the following manner: During the warm close weather of the Summer or Autumnal months, the chamber door may be left open for a few nights, afterwards a part of the sash may be left open, but the current of air intercepted by the shutter, and as the person becomes more habituated to free air, the shutter also may be left open, and the current of air prevented by dropping a window curtain before it.

In the colder months, a window in an adjoining apartment may be left open, also a door of communication, opening or closing the shutter, according as the wind does or does not blow directly from that quarter. It is proper, however, to observe, that pure air is necessary to health, yet that great caution is requisite in gradually accustoming ourselves to it. Great and sudden refrigeration by ventillation is dangerous. Opening the windows ought never to be attempted but with great caution. A gentleman, active and hardy, and accustomed to a country life, accidentally slept in a room where his servant had neglected to shut one of the windows; the consequence was, his being seized with a serious illness, from which he recovered with difficulty. Above all, sitting in a draught of air is dangerous. Though if the whole body is exposed, it will not suffer, yet if only a part receive the impression, it is often attended with very fatal consequences.



Chimney-boards, as very great impediments to a free circulation, ought to be rarely admitted into any apartment, more especially into a bed-room.

Thick curtains, closely drawn around the bed, are very injurious, because they not only confine the effluvia thrown off from our bodies whilst in bed, but intercept the current of pure air.

Impure air is peculiarly inimical to the nervous system; it relaxes and enfeebles the general habit, and increases the irritability of the body; whereas there is no means more likely to remove every complaint of that nature, than to pay the greatest possible attention to the quality of the air, both in the day time and at night.

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ON THE DIGESTIVE ORGANS. By DR. J. JOHNSON.

*Symptoms.*—The phenomena which supervene on the introduction of *too large a quantity* of food into the stomach, or of some *particular kind* of food, which, from peculiarity of constitution, disagrees with the stomach, have been set down rather incautiously as symptoms of indigestion. Thus, a man in perfect health, and with an excellent appetite, is allured by variety of dishes, agreeable company, provocative liquors, and pressing invitations, to take in food more in accordance with the relish of appetite than the power of digestion. No inconvenience occurs for an hour or two; but then the food appears to, and actually, does, swell in the stomach, occasioning a sense of distention there, not quite so pleasant as the sensations attendant on the various changes of dishes, and bumpers of Burgundy. He unbuttons his waistcoat, to give more room to the labouring organ; but that affords only temporary relief. There is a struggle in the stomach between the vital and the chemical laws, and eructations of air and acid proclaim the victory of the latter. The nerves of the stomach are irritated by the new and injurious compounds or extrications, and the digestive power still farther weakened. The food, instead of being changed into bland and healthy chyme in a couple of hours, and thus passed into the duodenum, or second stomach, is retained for several hours in the stomach, occasioning a train of the most uneasy sensations, which I need not describe, but which amply punish the transgression of the laws of nature and temperance. Instead of sound sleep, the gourmand experiences perpetual restlessness through the night—or, if he sleeps, alarms his neighbours with the stifled groans of the night-mare. In the morning we perceive some of those sympathetic effects on other parts of the system, which, at a later period of the career of intemperance,

play a more important part in the drama. The head aches—the intellect is not clear or energetic—the nerves are unstrung—the tongue is furred—there is more inclination for drink than food—the urinary secretion is turbid—and the bowels very frequently disordered, in consequence of the irritating materials which have passed along the intestinal canal. This can hardly be called a fit of indigestion, though, even here, we find many of the leading phenomena which afterwards harass the individual without such provocation. It is a fit of *intemperance*, and repetition seldom fails, in the end, to induce that morbid sensibility of the stomach and bowels which forms the characteristic feature of indigestion.

I have called the above a *fit of intemperance*, and, of course, it is rather an extreme case, though by no means very uncommon. Nine-tenths of men in civilized society, however, commit more or less of this intemperance every day. If, when in health, we experience any degree of the foregoing symptoms after our principal meal—if we have a sense of distention, cructations, disturbed sleep, with subsequent languor, there was intemperance in our repast, if that repast did not amount to two ounces of food, or two glasses of wine.

But established indigestion is not so much induced by this violence habitually offered to the stomach, as by the re-action of other organs (whose functions have been disturbed sympathetically) on the organ of digestion. The nervous system and the liver repay with interest, after a time, the injuries they sustain from the stomach. The gastric fluid, so much under the influence of the nerves, becomes impaired—the hepatic secretion vitiated—and then the phenomena of indigestion gradually acquire a higher degree of intensity, by the additional sources of irritation, and the corresponding augmentation of morbid organic sensibility.

This progressive march of the disorder has been artificially divided into stages, and considerable importance attached to the division. The marks by which the stages are supposed to be cognizable do not appear satisfactory to me, or accord with my own observations. Dr. Philip lays down a deviation from healthy appearance in the motions, as marking “an important step in the progress of the malady.” “It (the alvine discharge) sometimes contains,” says Dr. Philip, “uncombined bile, sometimes it chiefly consists of bile; its colour, at other times, is too light, more frequently too dark, at length almost black; at different times it assumes various hues, sometimes inclining to green, sometimes to blue, and sometimes it is mixed with, and now and then wholly consists of, undigested bits of food.” If

these be marks of an important step in the progress of indigestion, I can only say, that the above conditions of the biliary secretion may often be seen where there is no indigestion at all, and that they are very frequently absent, when there is the highest degree of indigestion, or at least of dyspepsia. That they mark a *disturbance in the hepatic function*, there can be no doubt; but that they are necessary attendants on any *particular stage* of indigestion, I cannot admit, consistently with my own observations. The functions of the liver, indeed, and the stomach are so intimately linked, that a derangement of one organ, and especially of the liver, is very commonly productive of derangement in the other, and it is difficult to say, in many cases, which has the priority. The appearance of the alvine discharge is, unquestionably, one of the best indications of the state of the hepatic function, but I cannot admit that it is so good an index of that train of nervous and general dyspeptic symptoms as Dr. Philip seems to consider it.

When this combination of gastric and hepatic disorder obtains, whichever may have had the priority, the term “INDIGESTION” is merely a conventional one, which is meant to designate a complication in which indigestion forms at most but a part—a very small part—and sometimes no part at all. I own that it is very hard for any one but a German to give such a name to this complication as may convey a clear idea of its nature. By the term “morbid sensibility of the stomach and bowels,” I mean a disordered condition of the gastric and intestinal nerves, in which their natural sensibility is changed, being morbidly acute, morbidly obtuse, (torpid) or perverted. By this term, I merely designate a fact or condition which, in my opinion, obtains much more generally in this class of maladies than the state called indigestion—indeed, I think I may aver, that it is never absent in the functional disorders of the digestive apparatus now under review, and that it forms the connecting link between these disorders and the various sympathetic affections of other and distant parts of the system. This is my apology for the term.

When the combination of liver and stomach affection is established, we have a train of well-marked phenomena indicative of their co-existence. The appetite is fickle, being sometimes ravenous, at others almost annihilated, and sometimes whimsical. Whatever is eaten produces more or less of distention, discomfort, or even of pain in the stomach, or in some portion of the alimentary canal, till the fæcal remains have been evacuated. On this account, the bilious and dyspeptic invalid is very anxious to take aperient medicine, as temporary relief is gene-



rally experienced by free evacuations. I say *temporary* relief; for purgation will not remove the cause of the disease, it only dislodges irritating secretions, soon to be replaced by others equally offensive. Indeed the usual routine of calomel at night and black draught in the morning, if too often repeated, will keep up rather than allay irritation in the bowels, and produce, as long as they are continued, morbid secretions from the liver and whole intestinal canal. It is astonishing how long scybala and irritating undigested matter will lurk in the cells of the colon, notwithstanding daily purgation. Many instances have come to my knowledge, where portions of substances, eaten two, three, and four months previously, have at length come away in little round balls enveloped with layers of inspissated secretions. These scybala keep up an *irritation*, generally without any pain, in the bowels, and the effects of this irritation are manifested in distant parts by the most strange and anomalous sensations, that appear to have no connexion with the original cause. The practitioner is thrown off his guard by the belief that, after repeated cathartics which scour the bowels, there cannot be any thing left there. But this is a great mistake. It is not the most energetic purgative that clears the bowels most effectually. If irritation be first allayed by hyosciamus or even opium, and then a mild cathartic exhibited, the evacuations will be much more copious than if the most drastic medicines were exhibited without previous preparation.

In addition to the various appearances of the motions, as described by Dr. Philip, I may add that, although the liver is often very torpid in this disease, and consequently the fæces of a clay-colour and devoid of natural smell, yet there is, in many cases, a copious secretion of viscid bile, which appears either distinct in the motions, or, when incorporated with them, renders them as tenacious as bird-lime. It is exceedingly difficult to separate these motions from the bottom of the utensil by affusions of water. It is this tenacious ropy bile which hangs so long in the bowels of some people, and, by keeping up a constant irritation of the intestinal nerves, produces a host of uneasy sensations in various parts of the body, as well as fits of irritability in the mind. In some cases, where this poisonous secretion lurks long in the upper bowels, whose nerves are so numerous and sympathies so extensive, there is induced a state of mental despondency and perturbation which it is impossible to describe, and which no one can form a just idea of, but he who has felt it in person. The term "blue devils," is not half expressive enough of this state; and, if my excellent friend, Dr. Marshall Hall, meant to describe it under the head "*mimosis iniquita*,"

he never experienced it in propria persona! This poison acts in different ways on different individuals. In some, whose nervous systems are not very susceptible, it produces a violent fit of what is called bilious colic, with excruciating pains and spasms in the stomach and bowels, generally with vomiting or purging, and often succeeded by a yellow suffusion in the eyes, or even on the skin. Severe as this paroxysm is, the patient may thank his stars that the poison vented its fury on the body instead of the mind. Where the intellectual faculties have been much harassed, and the nervous system weakened, the morbid secretion acts in that direction, and little or no inconvenience is felt in the real seat of the enemy. The mind becomes suddenly overcast, as it were with a cloud—some dreadful imaginary evil seems impending, or some real evil, of trifling importance in itself, is quickly magnified into a terrific form, attended apparently with a train of disastrous consequences, from which the mental eye turns in dismay. The sufferer cannot keep in one position, but paces the room in agitation, giving vent to his fears in doleful soliloquies, or pouring forth his apprehensions in the ears of his friends. If he is from home, when this fit comes on, he hastens back—but soon sets out again, in the vain hope of running from his own wretched feelings. If he happen to labour under any chronic complaint at the time, it is immediately converted into an incurable disease, and the distresses of a ruined and orphaned family rush upon his mind and heighten his agonies. He feels his pulse, and finds it intermitting—disease of the heart is threatened, and the doctor is summoned. If he ventures to go to bed, and falls into a slumber, he awakes in the midst of a frightful dream, and dares not again lay his head on the pillow. This state of misery may continue for twenty-four, thirty-six, or forty-eight hours; when a discharge of viscid, acrid bile, in a motion of horrible fetor, dissolves at once the spell by which the strongest mind may be bowed down to the earth, for a time, through the agency of a poisonous secretion on the intestinal nerves! I believe such a train of symptoms seldom occurs, except where there has been a *predisposition* to morbid sensibility, occasioned by mental anxiety, vicissitudes of fortune, disappointments in business, failure of speculations, domestic afflictions, or some of those thousand moral ills which render both mind and body so susceptible of disorder. It is under the influence of such paroxysms as these, I am thoroughly convinced, that nine-tenths of those melancholy instances of suicide, which shock the ears of the public, take place. Nothing is more common than to hear of these catastrophes, where no ostensible cause could be assigned

for the dreadful act. There might be no real moral cause—but there was a real physical cause for the momentary hallucination of the judgment, in the irritation of the organ of the mind, through sympathy with the organs of digestion. Such is the intimacy of connexion, and reciprocity of dependence between the intellectual and corporeal functions !

The foregoing is a sketch of a high degree of biliary irritation, acting on the mental faculties through the medium of the intestinal nerves. But there are a thousand shades of this irritation displaying themselves more in the temper or moral character, than in the corporeal functions. These I cannot at present stop to delineate.

In the complicated disease under consideration, there are various functions disturbed, and phenomena produced, which are all referrible to one common source. The tongue is furred, especially in the middle and at the root, and, when there is much irritation in the stomach or duodenum, the papillæ are elevated, and the edges and tip red. There is, in some people, a peculiar sense of constriction at the root of the tongue and about the fauces, which cannot be accounted for on any other principle than that of sympathy with the stomach. The mouth feels clammy, and there is a heavy odour on the breath. The clean red tongue, whether moist or dry, is indicative of serious mischief in the lining membrane of the stomach or bowels. It resembles a beef-steak, or cleanly dissected muscle.

The eye may or may not be tinged yellow; but there is a peculiar muddiness or lack-lustre in the coats of that organ, with an expression of languor or irritability in the countenance, especially about noon, which are singularly characteristic of the malady, and indicate, with unerring certainty, its existence to the experienced physician. In people beyond the age of forty-five, there is usually a greater defect of vision, particularly by candle-light, when the digestive organs are disordered, than when the functions of the stomach and liver are in good condition. The urinary secretion is generally disturbed—being either turbid, or high-coloured, with more or less of pink or white sediment. It is, for the most part, rather scanty than otherwise, with occasional irritation in passing it. Sometimes, when the individual is in a state of nervous irritation, it is as limpid as pump-water, made every half-hour, and in large quantity in the aggregate. It is curious that this clear and tasteless water should be more irritating to the bladder than the most concentrated and highly saline urine. The individual cannot retain more than a few spoonfuls at a time, without great inconvenience.



## DISSECTION OF A HYDROCEPHALIC HEAD.

Dr. Spurzheim has dissected, in company with Messrs. Morgan and Key, surgeons to Guy's hospital, London, the head of a man thirty years of age, named Cardinal, who is figured in Dr. Spurzheim's *Physiognomical System*, as an example of enlargement of the skull from hydrocephalus. Messrs. Morgan and Key found about nine pints of water between the brain and dura mater, and one pint in the lateral ventricles. Dr. Spurzheim was then invited to assist. The brain lay in the bottom of a cranium, which had measured in 1815, over the integuments, thirty-three inches in its greatest circumference, twenty-four and a half inches from ear to ear, over the top, and twenty-three and a half inches from the root of the nose to the back of the neck. The corpus callosum was split along its raphé, leaving the two halves entire on the sides of a great opening, by which the ventricles communicated with the space between the brain and the dura mater. The lateral ventricles were most distended in the posterior lobes; and, on the right side, several convolutions were unfolded into a membranous form, in the manner described by Dr. Spurzheim. Those of the left presented the usual appearance. The convolutions which usually lie in contact with each side of the falx, were turned so as to face upwards.

Anterior and middle lobes of the brain, nearly natural; olfactory nerves large; optic small; lower half of the corpora quadrigemina small; cerebellum flattened; its cineritious substance very dark.

The brain weighed two pounds fourteen and a half ounces.

The man, when described by Dr. Spurzheim, in his work, could read and write tolerably well, and manifested all the natural sentiments and intellectual faculties.

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BOILING A WOMAN ALIVE.

M. Teallier has inserted the following case in a Parisian journal:—Madame L., aged twenty-eight years, consulted a quack for a chronic rheumatism. The man of art directed her to enter a warm bath, and raise its heat gradually to near the boiling point. This sagacious advice was complied with. The poor lady, after the process had endured for some time, became insensible; her skin became black and bloated; convulsions, grinding of the teeth, and foaming at the mouth, soon followed. M. Teallier relieved these cerebral symptoms by a free bleeding,

and the woman recovered her senses. Pain was then felt in the epigastrium, and was removed by forty leeches. Next day it recurred round the umbilicus, and here gave way to twenty leeches. She was not long in recovering her health; but six weeks after, the whole outer skin separated from her body, without the least pain.

We consider this a very curious case. But it allows us to ask, whether this does not explain some of the cases of apoplexy from heat, in our Summer months; and whether these may not arise from the general application of heat to the whole body, as well as to the head in particular.

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#### MR. ABERNETHY'S METHOD OF TREATING SCROFULA.

The following cases, given by Mr. Abernethy will shew his manner of treating glandular swellings, or scrofula. The means are within the power of every person, and if the treatment does not succeed, no possible harm can arise to the patient:—

##### *Case of a Boy.*

The son of one of my friends had gradually fallen into a very bad state of health. The child was about six years of age, and had been unwell for several months; when, in conclusion, two glands in the neck became gradually enlarged, till each had attained the size of a large walnut. The child's tongue was much furred, his appetite very deficient, and capricious; his bowels had a costive tendency; his stools were never of a proper colour. His flesh was wasted and flabby, his countenance pale, his pulse feeble and frequent; and his general demeanor languid and irritable. I told his father, that I could advise nothing as a local application, better than a poultice of bread and water; and that the chief object of attention was the correction of the disorder under which the child had long laboured, so that his constitution might regain its natural tranquillity and strength. Upon this subject I promised to speak to the gentleman who hitherto attended the child. In about two days a deep redness came over the most prominent part of each gland, denoting as I concluded, a disposition in the internal parts to suppurate. The child took half a grain of calomel with five of rhubarb every second night, and ten drops of the acid. sulphur. dilut. three times a day. In about a week, an evident amendment was observed in the appetite, spirits, and colour of the excretions from the bowels. In a fortnight, the spirits of the child became, to use the words of the parents, ungovernable; and an evident amendment of the health in general took place. In a month, the child

might be said to be well; though he remained thin. After another fortnight, he discontinued all medicine, except the occasional use of the powders, for at this time all vestiges of enlargement in the glands had disappeared. I do not relate this case as extraordinary, for I have seen several worse cases, cured by the same means; and as I have said, some of the swellings have come on tardily, and others rapidly. It is related merely, because in the same family another child had suppuration of the glands, which left a sore that healed slowly.

It cannot indeed be proved that these cases would have been strumous; it can only be said, that to all appearance they were the same as others which I have formerly seen suppurate, and form sores slow in healing, and such as are generally denominated scrofulous.

### *Swellings of the Glands of the Neck.*

A slender child, about five years of age, had five swollen glands on the right side of the neck, and three on the left. Their magnitude was considerable, and the child's appearance sickly; and the disorder had so threatening an appearance, that the gentleman who attended the family requested the parents to take some additional opinion on the case. The tongue was furred, and the bowels so habitually costive, that sometimes a week elapsed without any alvine evacuation. As the child was feverish, he took at first some saline medicines in a state of effervescence, which was afterwards changed for the diluted vitriolic acid. He also took half a grain of calomel, every second night, which gradually brought about a regular secretion of healthy bile, and in about three weeks the child might be said to be well, for his bowels acted regularly when no medicine was taken, and the discharges from them were properly tinctured with bile. The use of calomel was now only recommended, if the appearance of the stools varied from the rhubarb colour. The swollen glands disappeared, nothing but a bread and water poultice having been applied to them. The bodily powers of the child were considerably augmented, and his aspect became healthy.

### *Scrofulous Affection of the Hip, with Lameness.*

A boy, between seven and eight years of age, had a lameness about the hip, which was so considerable as greatly to alarm his parents. There was no tenderness when the joint was compressed either in front or from behind. The tongue was furred, and he had been subject to slight paroxysms of fever, resembling an intermittent. I recommended half a grain of calomel with a few grains of rhubarb every other night. In a short time the



lameness so entirely disappeared, that I was no further consulted on his case. About eight months afterwards, however, I was desired to see him with three considerably enlarged absorbent glands on one side of his neck, and two on the other. They had for many days continued to increase. He was at that time feverish, and I now became more acquainted with the state of his health in general. I learned that he ate rather voraciously, and could not be restrained from taking very highly seasoned food; that though his bowels regularly enough evacuated the residue of the food, the stools were of various and always of faulty colours, and very offensive; that he perspired profusely upon the slightest exertion. His skin was covered every where with scurf and eruptions, and his hands were hard, harsh, and chapped. He took the medicines as in the preceding case, for about the same length of time, when the glandular complaint was well. He continued the half grain of calomel, however, for three months, for the secretion of bile had not even in that time become healthy in quantity and quality. His skin was, however, perfectly smooth and free from eruptions. His hands only retained in a slight degree their former feel.

I have also seen instances of sores apparently scrofulous, left after the suppuration and ulceration of diseased glands, which had continued for more than a year, heal rapidly under the same kind of treatment. I have, however, seen other instances, in which the sores did not appear to be amended by such constitutional treatment.

I have also observed several instances of strumous affections of the fingers in children get well in proportion as the general health has become established by correcting disorders of the digestive organs. I need not, however, detail them. These diseases were, in my opinion, strictly scrofulous. The nature of the disease in the following case will not I think be doubted, and on this account I relate it.

#### *Scrofulous Abscess of the Arm.*

A child, about five years of age, after having had the measles, got into a bad state of health, and had several scrofulous abscesses form on the fore-arm. They became sores of various sizes, but in general about that of a shilling; the surrounding skin was thickened and of a purplish hue. The sores were foul, and without granulations. In this state they were when I first saw the patient, and had continued with occasional amendment and deterioration for two years. The child's countenance sufficiently indicated that he was ill, also his tongue was furred, his appetite deficient, his bowels costive, and their discharges faulty.

The same medicines were prescribed as in the former cases. In about six weeks the child got into remarkably good health, which it had not enjoyed from the time of its first indisposition, and the sores rapidly and soundly healed.

My observations have led me to believe that most local diseases are preceded by general indisposition, of which the disordered state of the digestive organs is an evidence, and may have been a cause. The relief arising from the correction of this disorder is indeed surprising, and the general knowledge of this fact I have deemed my duty to promote to the utmost of my power. When the appetite has been deficient, I have been accustomed to recommend acids as medicines; when, on the contrary, it has been good, and the digestion difficult and imperfect, I have recommended bitters and alkalies.

I mention this to account for my giving the sulphuric acid in these cases. It is, in addition to its medical properties, so pleasant, that even spoiled children will take it without agitating themselves, or their parents. It pleases me to be able to give proofs of its utility; because, I think, they will be allowed to disprove that any specific good arises from the administration of alkalies. Alkalies may be useful occasionally in dyspeptic cases; but that they have no specific action in the cure of scrofula I have long thought, from some experiments which I made on this subject at the hospital. In cases of scrofulous glands, I gave soda in doses which were gradually increased till they affected the qualities of the urine, without perceiving any benefit to accrue to the local disease from its use. The pleasure which I feel in thus endeavouring to disprove the specific virtues of alkalies arises from this circumstance:—That if I am right in my notion, that they are chiefly useful by their operation in the stomach and bowels, it shows how much better it is to be informed of what ought to be done for the cure of diseases, than of the means by which it may occasionally be accomplished; or in other words, it shows how much superior the rational is to the empirical practice of medicine.

That erysipelatous inflammation is the consequence of a disturbed state of the system, caused or maintained by disorder of the digestive organs, and that this inflammation is curable by means which correct the latter disorder, could be proved by numerous and indisputable cases; yet it is not necessary to adduce them, because the public opinion seems already decided on this subject. If, then, numerous and very dissimilar diseases may result from the same causes, is it not probable that they are adequate to produce every variety? It must, however, be admitted, that there may be hereditary predispositions to certain

diseased actions. We have instances of gout occurring in very early childhood; and it is also highly probable that unhealthy states of the circulating fluids may conduce to exerce peculiar morbid actions.

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#### TO BAKE PIG.

Lay it in a dish and flour it well; then rub it all over with butter: the dish you lay it in must likewise be well buttered. Thus prepared, send it to the oven. As soon as it is drawn, if enough, rub it over with a cloth well buttered; then set it in the oven again till it is dry. Take it out and put it in a dish; then cut it up; take a little gravy made of veal, and take off the fat that lay in the dish it was baked in, and you will find a small quantity of good gravy at the bottom; put that to your veal gravy, and with the addition of a lump of butter rolled in flour; when you have boiled your gravy up, put it into your dish, and intermingle it with the brains and the sage which were baked in the belly of it.—If you choose to have the pig served up to the table whole, you have nothing more to do, than to put such sauce into the dish as you judge most proper.

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#### TO MAKE AN ONION SOUP.

Put half a pound of good butter into a stew pan, and let it all melt over the fire, and boil till it makes no manner of noise; then take about a dozen, or less of onions, peeled, according as they are in bigness, and cut them small; when thus shred, throw them into your melted butter, and let them fry for about fifteen or twenty minutes; then, when you have shaken in a small quantity of flour, stir them round about; shake your pan, and let them fry for a few minutes longer; then add to them a quart, or more if you think proper, of boiling water, and stir them round once more; then throw into them a large piece of the upper crust of a stale loaf, and season it with salt to your taste; keep them boiling for ten minutes longer over the fire; but let them be frequently stirred; then take them off, and have the yolks of two eggs beat fine with half a spoonful of vinegar ready to put to them; and having mingled some of the soup with them stir it well, and mix it well with the remainder of your soup, and so serve it up to table.

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#### HINTS TO PERSONS AFFLICTED WITH PARALYTIC OR APOPLECTIC DISORDERS.

There are no diseases, which require more the friendly aid of a judicious medical practitioner, than those of a paralytic, or of



an apoplectic description. In such afflicting disorders, general directions can be of no avail, for the remedies must vary, according to the peculiar circumstances of each case, and they must often be instantaneously applied, to give any chance of saving the patient. There is reason, however, to hope, that the following remarks may be of use to those who live at a distance from medical aid, and may even furnish hints for discussion, where such aid can be got. The recovery of health and strength after the disorder has been subdued, requires (and often for a long period of time) unceasing attention to minutiae. Hence the advantage of having some directions in a printed form, ready for perusal when necessary. By these means, a cure, effected by the skill of the physician, may be followed up, and health completely re-established. Nor ought the patient to be disappointed, when a change is not rapidly brought about. What is slowly gained, is likely to be permanently secured; whereas a quick restoration may be succeeded by a revulsion equally sudden.

It is not improbable, that occasional cupping in the back, or with leeches in the back of the head, may be necessary, to diminish the pressure on the brain; but that must be regulated by the advice of a medical friend.

Shaving the head daily, or at least every second or third day, and washing the head frequently, by means of a flesh-brush, dipped in cold water, are practices of great moment. The scurf on the skin is thus got rid of, and the head can be kept much cooler.

The body clothes should be kept loose, (especially about the neck, the wrists, and the knees;) and light, for the sake of easy conveyance. It is not difficult, by using Shetland stockings, &c. to combine warmth with lightness.

Either a strong flesh-brush, or hair gloves, ought to be applied, at night and morning, to the feet and arms, with a view of giving a tone to the skin; on the healthy state of which, the condition (athletically speaking,) of the whole body, greatly depends. Patting the limbs likewise by the hands of a servant, in particular the feet and legs with the stockings on, greatly tends to the acquisition of strength, and brings, what is so much wanted, the blood to the extremities. If the speech be affected, the most likely means of obtaining relief, is by the application of a hard flesh-brush to the throat, so as to strengthen the roots of the tongue; and rubbing under the chin with the fingers.

As soon as it is practicable, it would be highly expedient to use the shower bath, at least occasionally, as the means of propelling the blood from the head.

The breathing of pure air is of the utmost importance to

health ; and for that purpose, the improved mode of ventilation, by pulling down the upper sashes, and having a wooden conductor, by which the air is made to strike against the ceiling, cannot be too strongly recommended. In the Winter season, on the other hand, it would be advisable to adopt the Russian mode, of having double sashes in the windows of the rooms inhabited by the patient, to prevent the admission of cold.

In regard to sleeping, a mattress is to be preferred : the head should be raised, and not too warmly covered ; the pillow to be stuffed with horse-hair, and not with feathers.

For breakfast, take a moderate quantity of milk, if it agrees with the patient, with hard baker's biscuit, or rusks, or stale, or toasted bread, to give the stomach something to do, which keeps up its digestive powers ; but if costive, toasted brown bread would be preferable. Barley-meal porridge might also be occasionally taken ; or tea for a change. Apple-jelly is a most excellent conserve to be taken with bread, and greatly preferable to currant-jelly. No butter on any account.

Luncheons ought to be entirely given up.

For dinner, take a single plateful of light soup or broth, and and then a moderate quantity of pudding, made of pearl-barley, or rice. In the East Indies, where the people live upon rice, paralytic and apoplectic disorders are scarcely known, unless when arising from the use of opium. This proves how these disorders may be prevented, by the adoption of that sort of vegetable diet. Pearl or pot-barley may be called "European's rice," and perhaps is the best of all food, producing the purest blood. When ground into meal, it may be made into scones or cakes (prepared with milk), which are wholesomer than fermented bread ; or millet, or potatoe-meal, prepared from potatoes sliced and dried, and then ground. Remember to eat slowly. A little fowl or mutton, or white sea-fish, in particular whittings, is allowable once a week for a change. No fruit to be taken after the stomach is filled. The wholesomest fruits are strawberries, gooseberries, grapes, or currants. Stone fruits are to be avoided.

For drink, whey, (more especially clarified, as the French "*petit lait*,") or toast and water, made with peculiar care, are to be preferred. Ginger, or spruce-beer, likewise may be taken : but no malt liquor, nor wine, nor spirits, even with water.

A late "*tea*" may be taken, to prevent the necessity of supper, which ought to be given up, or taken very sparingly.

To promote the restoration of health, the mind must be occupied and amused, and should be kept as much as possible free from agitation, till its former tone is restored. *Without*, walking on level ground, surveying the beauties of nature, and directing,

the operations, but not joining in the labours of gardening, are practices highly advisable. The management of a green-house, and attention to the culture of plants, are excellent means of occupation. In regard to "*in-door amusements*," neither billiards, nor cards, are to be recommended, from the anxiety they occasion. The books to be read, ought in general to be of a light and amusing description. Music is a delightful resource; and the company of the young and the lively ought to be cultivated.

Religious exercises also, ought not to be omitted, more especially on Sundays. These will afford consolation and hope, when every other means of relief are sought for in vain.

On the whole, it is hardly possible, where the constitution is not gone, or the frame in a state of decay, that a careful attention to all these particulars, will not be productive of the most essential benefit.

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#### ADVICE TO INVALIDS FROM HOT CLIMATES.

The most serious consequence of a return to Europe, after long residence in a tropical climate, is the aggravation or even production of disease in the chest. The mucous membrane of the lungs sympathizes readily with that of the stomach, and thus produces what is called a stomach cough. Chronic disease of the liver produces the same thing, whether by means of sympathy, or simply by contiguity with the diaphragm, which is so intimately connected with the organ of respiration. Now, in a great majority of instances, these affections of the chest are only symptomatic, even when the invalid has returned to Europe, and will subside in proportion as the functions of the stomach and of the liver are restored. But, on the other hand, there are many cases where the symptomatic affection of the chest has continued so long as to induce actual disease there, which disease will not be removed, nor even materially relieved by the remedies prescribed for the liver or stomach complaint.

In this country, the symptomatic affection of the lungs in chronic hepatitis and indigestion, has excited much attention, and has been treated of under the names of "*hepatic phthisis*," "*dyspeptic phthisis*," and "*stomach cough*." Where there is evidently derangement of the liver or stomach, and the patient is lately from a hot climate, the English practitioner sets down any pulmonary affection that may be complained of, as symptomatic, of course, of the abdominal disorder; and thus, that time is lost in abortive attempts to remove both classes of complaints by striking at the original one, which might have saved the lungs from irremediable disorganization. Many are the



instances I have seen, and continue to see, where patients have been pronounced to be labouring under symptomatic disease only, while a few minutes' examination of the chest by percussion and auscultation detected organic changes in the lungs or heart, which have passed the period when any chance of recovery could be expected. This, in fact, is one of the greatest dangers which the tropical invalid runs, when he embarks for his native climate, where pulmonary complaints are the prevailing diseases. On this account, he should, from the moment he goes on ship-board, pay the utmost attention to his dress, and most cautiously avoid all exposure to wet and cold on the voyage homewards. This caution is not less necessary for the invalid affected with the usual consequences of tropical diseases only, and where the chest is free, at the time he embarks. As he approaches the Cape, and afterwards the Channel, he is much more liable to pulmonary affection than a person who has never suffered from hepatic or stomach disorder; and if the chest once becomes affected, he is much more exposed to fixed and dangerous disease there. If the pulmonary affection, even of the mildest kind, and purely symptomatic, has manifested itself between the tropics, he is in still more danger—and if the English practitioner fails to make the most rigid examination of the chest, on his arrival, he becomes morally responsible for all the serious consequences which may subsequently result from this neglect. In short, I have no hesitation in asserting, that the disorder of the chest, even if purely symptomatic, demands more attention, and is really of more importance than the abdominal disorder from which it arose. There is little or no organic disease of the liver in one case out of twenty of those who return to this country labouring under "liver complaint"—and this remark is still more applicable to the stomach—consequently, there is but little risk of life. But if the lungs once become affected in structure—if symptomatic be confounded with organic derangement, or suffered by neglect to pass into that state, the case will rarely be otherwise than fatal. The surgeon of the ship, therefore, should take an early opportunity of examining the chests of all invalids complaining of cough, or who are easily put out of breath on ascending ladders, &c. If they cannot lie low in bed, or take in a deep inspiration without exciting cough—and still more, if they feel uneasiness in any part of the chest, the case should be immediately attended to before the patient gets into the high latitudes, where the malady will certainly be increased. A blister—a few leeches—or a crop of pustules excited by tartar-emetic, aided by warm dress, abstinence from stimulating drink, and some gentle dia-

phoretic to act on the skin, would save many a day's sufferings afterwards—nay, many a valuable life. But of this more hereafter.

*Conduct during the Voyage Home.*

It is on the voyage to England, where there are many circumstances favourable to the object in view, that the invalid should seriously think of adopting a system of diet and regimen that might not only obviate any injurious effects of a sudden transition from a hot to a cold climate, but contribute materially to the removal of those complaints contracted by residence in the former. It cannot, indeed, be too strongly impressed on the mind of the tropical invalid, that without a firm resolution to coerce his appetites into complete subjection, and make them subservient to the restoration of his health, he will gain little by a return to his native skies; but, on the contrary, he will either confirm those maladies under which he already labours, or, what perhaps is worse, convert them into forms less formidable indeed in appearance, but effectually subversive of every enjoyment, mental or corporeal, which can render life desirable. Of all the miseries to which man is liable, by the frailties of his nature, there is none more terrible to endure, or difficult to remove, than that of

*Hypochondriacal Despondency,*

which is sure to settle on the tropical invalid in his own country, in the midst of his friends, and in the possession of wealth, unless he succeeds, by timely and proper measures, in correcting those morbid conditions of the digestive organs, from which this dæmon draws a gigantic power and influence, that tyrannize over all fortitude, philosophy—and even religion itself! The extent of this evil is so great in these isles, that it has been suspected, and not without probability, that our tropical colonization has introduced and propagated, by hereditary descent, a strong disposition to stomach and liver affections beyond that which is observed in any other country. Be this as it may, the instances of insanity and suicide, from this cause, are not exceedingly rare; while the number of hypochondriacs, cursed, I might almost say, in the possession of reason, but driven to despair by the torture of their own morbid feelings and nervous irritation, which may be seen in all parts of the British dominions, but especially at watering places, is truly astonishing! Of these, our tropical invalids form no inconsiderable portion; and although the wretchedness of their sensations is only known to themselves, their medical attendants, and some of their inti-



mate acquaintances, the amount of it is great beyond all calculation.

*Necessity of strict Regimen on returning to Europe.*

That this unhappy winding up of a life spent under a burning sun, in the acquisition of wealth, and in the vain expectation of enjoyment in declining years, cannot always be prevented, is but too true; yet, at the same time, I know from repeated examples and multiplied observation, that a rigid system of self-control, adopted as soon as the individual withdraws himself from under the deleterious influence of a hot climate, and persisted in for a certain time after his arrival in Europe, would, in nine cases out of ten, be followed, not only by restoration of health, but by an equilibrium of spirits and mental serenity which none but the temperate, the abstemious, and the prudent can possibly appreciate. This system will be detailed farther on.

The principal states of indisposition under which an invalid embarks for Europe, are debility from long-continued disease of the liver, or the remedies unavoidably employed for that complaint—debility from fever, or a continuance of regular or irregular paroxysms of the disease—and bowel complaints.

Debility can only be removed, of course, by the introduction of nutriment into the *system*—but this does not always follow the introduction of food into the stomach, even when taken with considerable relish. One of the first effects of the sea-air is an increase of appetite, and the invalid hails this as a favourable omen, and indulges the propensity to eat. The debility of the various organs, however, and their previous desuetude to much nourishment, seldom permit this new propensity to be satisfied, without subsequent detriment. Indigestion, feverishness, or irritation of the bowels is almost sure to follow too free an indulgence of the appetite, and consequently there is no increase of strength from this temporary return of desire for food. Appetite, indeed, is a bad criterion for taking food; digestion—easy digestion, is the only sure guide. If we feel uneasy after four ounces of food; but comfortable after the ingestion of two ounces, we shall derive more support from the latter than from the former. The quantity and the quality of the food must be both carefully regulated; and, in general, the invalid's own feelings will warn him when he has erred on either point. But this is not always the case. There is no effect of indigestion more common than dejection of mind, when no corporal inconvenience appears to follow. The nerves of the stomach and upper bowels will be irritated, and this irritation will be propagated to the whole nervous system, and all its moral and intel-



lectual attributes, by quantities and qualities of food which excite no sensible uneasiness in the organs of digestion, and produce no change in the secretions or excretions by which the evil might be detected. A want of attention to this circumstance—or rather a want of knowledge of it, has led, and leads daily, in numerous instances, to states of mental despondency, ending ultimately in complete hypochondriacism. In insanity, the morbid condition of the mind is invariably dependent on a morbid condition of the body, (whether induced by moral or physical causes) although the latter is rarely cognizable by external corporeal symptoms. This holds equally good in hypochondriacism. The mental despondency is invariably dependent on some disorder of the body, and, in nine cases out of ten, it is immediately dependent on a morbid or irritable state of the nerves of the stomach and bowels. Of the truth of this I have had such multiplied proofs, that not a doubt remains on my own mind respecting it. It is as useless to attempt the removal of this mental despondency by moral means or mere persuasion, as to try to remove a fever or an inflammation by argument. The attempt, indeed, betrays a great ignorance of the real nature of the complaint in the physician. Moral means may certainly contribute to improvement of the general health, and this will much improve the state of the digestive organs, on which the mental despondency depends. It is only in this way that moral means can have any influence on hypochondriacism. But of this, more hereafter.

#### *Regimen during the Voyage.*

If the invalid only labours under that debility produced by fever and the remedies used for it, the sea-air, and the gradual increase of tone in the digestive organs will generally be sufficient to renew the strength, under the caution above-mentioned respecting diet. In such cases it can rarely be prudent to exhibit direct tonics at the beginning of the voyage. A warm bitter is quite sufficient, as equal parts of infusion of ginger and gentian, with four or five grains of carbonate of soda, and a drachm or two of any bitter tincture in each dose. The bowels should be regulated by mild aperients that do not produce thin or watery discharges—an operation which should be avoided—but which, I am sorry to say, continues to do infinite mischief. Many practitioners and patients are absolutely infatuated with the benefit to be derived from the blue pill at night, and the black dose in the morning. This medicine certainly sweeps away abundance of thin, fetid, and unhealthy secretions, and the patient feels lighter and more comfortable for a time; but a

repetition of the practice produces the very secretions which it is designed to carry off or prevent. After clearing the bowels in this way, the great object is to procure formed motions, if possible, and that not oftener than once in the 24 hours. That medicine which goes slowly and without irritation along the intestinal canal, permitting the nutriment to be taken up by the absorbents, and gently stimulating the large intestines to discharge the useless residue, is the one to which we should have recourse. Aloes is the basis of such medicine; but as, in the class of patients now under consideration, there is generally a defective or vitiated condition of the biliary secretion, and an irritable state of the gastric and intestinal nerves, together with a torpid skin, it is necessary to combine other medicines with the aloes. A grain of blue pill, three or four grains of extract of hyosciamus, and a quarter of a grain of ipecacuan, combined with as much aloes as is sufficient to move the bowels once daily, will be found a valuable form of aperient for the invalid on the voyage home. The hyosciamus allays the morbid irritability of the nerves of the digestive tube—the blue pill gently excites the hepatic secretion as well as the pancreatic and gastric—the ipecacuan acts mildly on the skin—while the aloes carries the whole slowly along the canal, and finally expels the *fecal* remains in the course of the ensuing day. Some little time may be necessary to ascertain the proportions of these medicines that may suit individual cases—but there can be little difficulty in obtaining the proper result in the end. It is supposed that a disposition to hæmorrhoids is an insuperable objection to aloes, or the compound extract of colocynth. This has been proved to be an error, and aloes is now commonly given by some of the best London practitioners for hæmorrhoids. It is too much purging that increases and irritates piles rather than the kind of purgative. Where it is desirable to procure one free and copious operation in the morning, a common seidlitz powder, taken at seven o'clock, and before breakfast, will pretty certainly have this effect.

#### *Treatment when Feverish.*

If the tropical invalid continues to be teased with regular or irregular paroxysms of fever, in spite of the above means, the sea-air, and strict regimen; then we must have recourse to certain specifics—and above all to the sulphate of quinine, a medicine which is indeed of singular efficacy, when properly managed, in many of those morbid conditions of the digestive organs resulting from the influence of tropical climates. The doses, however, should be small in the cases now under con-



sideration, where there is generally some obstruction or congestion in the liver or spleen. The surgeon should attentively examine the state of these viscera, and by local detractions of blood and counter-irritation, remove or lessen those affections on which the returns of the febrile paroxysm depend. When these organs are secured by such means, then from one to three grains of the quinine should be given every six hours, during the intermissions, in an infusion of bark, quassia, or gentian—and neither the surgeon nor patient should be over anxious to stop at once those paroxysms by larger doses of the medicine. It is far better gradually to give tone to the whole digestive apparatus, while the secretions of the glandular viscera are slowly improved by the mild aperient above-mentioned. The attacks, at first mitigated and ultimately stopped, in this slow manner, will be far less liable to recur, than when overwhelmed suddenly by such powerful tonics as the quinine and arsenic in large doses. The invalid, however, ought to continue the use of quinine, in conjunction with bitters and aperients, for a considerable time after all periodical accessions have ceased, since changes of weather, irregularities in diet, and many other causes are very apt to reproduce the paroxysms.—(*To be Continued.*)

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### DRINK AND BE MERRY.

[ By a Correspondent.]

Sadness is in the highest degree prejudicial to health, and causes abundance of distempers. There is no one ignorant of this truth. Joy (or mirth), on the contrary, prevents and forces them away. It is, as the Arabians say, the flower and spirit of a brisk and lively health. Let us run over, and examine all the different states of life, and we shall be forced to own, that there is not one of them all but what is subject to chagrin and sadness; and consequently, that joy, or mirth, is most necessary to men; which very probably the philosopher had in his head when he defined man a risible animal. But be that as it will, one must certainly look upon that maxim which recommends mingling of pleasures with the affairs of life as a very wise one.

Sometimes with mirth and pleasure lard your cares.

We shall confirm this precept by a beautiful passage out of Seneca, whose writings most certainly contain no loose morality, and which is as follows:—"The soul must not be always bent; one must sometimes allow it a little pleasure. Socrates was not ashamed to pass the time with children. Cato enjoyed himself in drinking plentifully, when his mind had been too



much wearied out in public affairs. Scipio knew very well how to move that body, so much inured to wars and triumphs, without breaking it, as some now-a-days do, with more than womanly pleasures; but as people did in past times, who would make themselves merry on their festivals, by leading a dance; really worthy men of those days, whence could ensue no reproach, when even their very enemies had seen them dance. One must allow the mind some recreation: it makes it more gay and peaceful. And as it is not good too much to cultivate soil the most fertile, least, by yielding too large crops, it may soon run to decay and ruin; so in the same manner is the mind broken by a continued labour and application. Those who respite a little, regain their strength. Assiduity of labour begets a languor and bluntness of the mind; for sleep is very necessary to refresh us, and yet he that would do nothing else but sleep night and day would be a dead man, and no more. There is a great deal of difference between loosening a thing, and quite unravelling it. Those who made laws have instituted holydays, to oblige people to appear at public rejoicings, in order to mingle with their cares a necessary temperament. There have been several very great men (as I have mentioned) who would set apart certain days of the month for that end; and some others, who had every day set hours for work, and other set hours for recreation. One must therefore allow the mind some recreation. One must allow it some repose and leisure, which may serve for new strength and nourishment. You must sometimes walk in the open air, that the mind may exalt itself by viewing the heavens, and breathing the air at your ease; sometimes take the air in your chariot, the roads and the change of the country will re-establish you in your vigour; or you may eat and drink a little more plentifully than usual. Sometimes one must go even as far as to get drunk; not, indeed, with an intention to drown ourselves in wine, but to drown our cares; for wine drives away sorrow and care, and goes and fetches them up from the bottom of the soul. And as drunkenness cures some distempers, so, in like manner, it is a sovereign remedy for our sorrows."

It must be confessed, indeed, that properly speaking, this passage of Seneca is levelled only against too great assiduity in labour and business; the application, however, is very just, in relation to chagrin, which causes in men's minds a far greater alteration than can be excited by the more rude labour either of mind or body.

The ancients had, besides this, another motive which induced them to make merry, and pass their time agreeably. They considered the short duration of their life, and for that reason en-

deavoured to make the best use of it they could. It will be no difficult matter for me to prove what I here advance.

Every one knows that the Egyptians made use of a very extraordinary custom in their festivals. They shewed to every guest a skeleton: this, according to some, was to make them think of death. Others again assure us, "That this strange figure was made use of to a quite contrary end; that this image of death was shewn for no other intent but to excite them to pass away their life merrily, and to employ the few days of its small duration to the best advantage; as having no other condition to expect after death, but that of this frightful skeleton."

This last sentiment is, without doubt, most probable; for what likelihood is there that people would make reflections the most sad and serious, at a time when they proposed only to divert, and make themselves merry. This influence had the sight of a skull upon the mind of Trimalchion, who Petronius tells us, thus expressed himself on that subject: "Alas! alas! wretched that we are! what a nothing is poor man! we shall be all like this, when Fate shall have snatched us hence. Let us therefore rejoice, and be merry while we may."

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#### EFFECTS OF THE CULTIVATION OF THE MENTAL AND BODILY POWERS, ON THE PROLONGATION OF LIFE.

It is only by culture that man acquires perfection. If he is desirous of enjoying the pre-eminence of human nature, his spiritual as well as his physical powers must obtain a certain degree of expansion, refinement, and exaltation. In a rude and uncultivated state he is not a man: he is only a savage animal, who has certain dispositions which fit him for becoming a man; but as long as these dispositions are not expanded by culture, he is raised, neither physically nor morally, above the other classes of animals in the like situation. The essential part of man which he possesses is his susceptibility of perfection; and his whole organization is so ordered that he may either become nothing or every thing.

The influence, therefore, which culture has in bringing to perfection the physical man, as well as in prolonging life, is highly worthy of attention. It is generally believed that all cultivation tends to weaken and to shorten physical existence; but this is the case only in regard to the extreme—for *hyperculture*, which makes man too delicate and refined, is as pernicious and unnatural as the other extreme, *want of cultivation*, when the faculties are not, or have been too little, expanded. By both these, the duration of life is shortened. Neither the man, therefore,



who by culture has become too tender, or who leads too sensual or too spiritual a life, nor the rude savage, ever attains to that term of life which man is actually capable of reaching. On the other hand, a proper and suitable degree of mental and bodily culture, and in particular a harmonic formation of all the powers, is, as has been already shewn, absolutely requisite, before man can attain to that pre-eminence over animals, in his physical state and vital duration, of which he is really susceptible.

It is well worth the trouble to examine and explain more accurately the influence which real culture has in prolonging life, and to establish how far it differs from that which is false. In lengthening our existence it acts in the following manner:—

It expands the organs to perfection, and consequently renders life richer as well as fuller of enjoyment, and occasions more abundant restoration. How many means of restoration, unknown to the savage, has the man who possesses a cultivated mind!

It renders the whole texture of the body somewhat softer and tenderer; consequently lessens that too great hardness which impedes duration of life.

It secures us against those destructive and life-shortening causes which deprive many savages of their existence; such as cold, heat, the influence of the weather, hunger, poisonous and pernicious substances, &c.

By reason and moral formation it moderates and regulates the passionate and merely animal part within us; teaches us to support misfortunes, injuries, and the like; and by these means moderates the too violent and active vital consumption, which would soon destroy us.

It is the foundation of social and political connexions, by which mutual aid, laws, and police establishments become possible; and these have a mediate effect in prolonging life.

Lastly, it makes us acquainted with a multitude of conveniences and means for rendering life more agreeable; which are, indeed, less necessary in youth, but which are of the utmost importance in old age. Nourishment refined by the art of cookery, exercise made easier by artificial helps, more perfect refreshment and rest, &c., are all advantages by which man in a cultivated state can support life much longer in old age, than man in the rude state of nature.

From this it already appears what degree and what kind of culture are necessary in order to prolong life; those which physically, as well as morally, have for their object the highest possible formation of our powers, but which are always regulated by that supreme moral law, to which every thing, to be good, suited to its end, and really beneficial, must have a relation.



## THE TREATMENT OF DISEASED AND CONTRACTED BLADDER.

Amongst the numberless disorders that "flesh is heir to," none produces more real misery to the sufferer than the various disorders of the urinary organs, and none of them, though uniformly severe, are more to be dreaded than a diseased bladder.

Deprived of the comfort of a natural evacuation, with an increased and increasing desire to vent his urine, the sufferer is harassed night and day; and every effort is the cause of the most torturing and wearing pains; and this may be the case, and frequently is, when there is nothing like the formation of stone in the bladder. A man may feel all the pains similar to those attendant on the formation of stone, and yet be entirely free from that disease; though his sufferings may be as acute and heart-rending as those of that most dreaded disease. It thus often happens that patients are put to unnecessary torture by ignorant surgeons, who generally imagine, whenever they are applied to for any complaint of the bladder or urinary organs, that it must be stone that is the cause of the patient's miseries; and straight proceed to *sound him*, as it is technically termed, thereby adding to torments already too great to bear.

We shall therefore point out, for the benefit of our readers, a leading principle which will enable them at once to distinguish when they are really afflicted with stone, or a disease in the bladder, independent of the presence of any foreign body, by which such disease might be confounded. As we have before stated, in articles on the urinary organs, the bladder, when healthy, can only contain a certain portion of fluid, and, consequently, about that portion will be discharged upon a desire to evacuate. A patient, therefore, who has been unable for a length of time to discharge more than a few spoonfuls, upon any effort, may be sure that the *capacity* of the bladder is contracted, provided that the urethra has been previously distended by bougies, to ascertain that stricture is not the cause of the complaint. In such a case it will be found that mucous will be discharged with the urine, at once demonstrating the contraction of the bladder; this contraction is just in proportion to the diminished quantity it would contain from a comparative view formed with a sound bladder. In all other possible affections of the bladder, or within the bladder, there will be occasional distention, and a full discharge of urine will take place, as from one of healthy capacity. This is a distinction *à priori*; but injecting the bladder will at once prove to the patient the fact, and that on the most simple principle:—

just so much fluid as the bladder can contain may be injected into it, and by measuring the quantity when evacuated, all doubt is removed as to the nature of the case.

*Treatment.*

When the patient has learned, therefore, from the quantity he has been enabled to inject, that his complaint is a thickening of the bladder, we should recommend him to inject, morning and evening, a strong decoction of marsh mallow roots, which may be done through the medium of a catheter, introduced in the morning, and drawn out at night, to prevent any irritation from constantly *sounding*. Whenever pain is felt the patient may be satisfied that the bladder is sufficiently distended, and that no more is to be injected; the liquid is then to be left in for a quarter of an hour or less, according to the desire that may be felt of making water.

By a regular application of this method for about a fortnight, a bladder, which at first could only contain two or three spoonfuls of injection, will be in a state to resume its natural functions, and progressively increase its capacity, by receiving an additional quantity of injection without causing pain.

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CURIOUS CASE OF A LADY BORN BLIND, RESTORED TO SIGHT  
AT AN ADVANCED AGE. BY Mr. WARDROP.

The following case cannot fail to prove interesting to our readers, both from the rarity of such an occurrence, it being the second case of the kind on record, as well as the curiosity that must naturally be excited to learn the peculiar feelings of a person, long habituated to depend entirely on the sense of touch, having at once the possession of a more perfect organ superadded, and the visible world laid open to contemplation.

The lady who underwent the operation had been born blind, and in consequence of the unfortunate result of an operation on her eyes to restore sight, one of them was entirely destroyed; the other, though no alteration took place in the form and size of the globe, was useless; she being incapable of distinguishing any object, though she was aware of the difference between a very light and a very dark room.

It was at the age of forty-six, when she was placed under the care of Mr. Wardrop, who performed three operations upon the eye, the sight of which was ultimately restored.

"On the 17th of February," says Mr. Wardrop, "the third operation was performed, which consisted in still further enlarging the opening in the iris, and in removing the opaque



matter, by a needle introduced through the sclerotica. This was followed by a very slight degree of redness. The operation being performed at my house, she returned home in a carriage, with her eye covered only with a loose piece of silk, and the first thing she noticed was a hackney coach passing, when she exclaimed, 'What is that large thing that has passed by us?' In the course of the evening she requested her brother to show her his watch, concerning which she expressed much curiosity, and she looked at it a considerable time, holding it close to her eye. She was asked what she saw, and she said there was a dark and a bright side; she pointed to the hour of twelve, and smiled. Her brother asked her if she saw any thing more? she replied, 'Yes,' and pointed to the hour of six, and to the hands of the watch. She then looked at the chain and seals, and observed that one of the seals was bright, which was the case, being a solid piece of rock crystal. The following day I asked her to look again at the watch, which she refused to do, saying, that the light was offensive to her eye, and that she felt very stupid; meaning that she was much confused by the visible world thus for the first time opened to her. On the third day she observed the doors on the opposite side of the street, and asked if they were red, but they were in fact of an oak colour. In the evening she looked at her brother's face, and said that she saw his nose; he asked her to touch it, which she did; he then slipped a handkerchief over his face, and asked her to look again, when she playfully pulled it off, and asked, 'What is that?'

"On the sixth day, she told us that she saw better than she had done on any preceding day; 'but I cannot tell what I do see; I am quite stupid.' She seemed indeed bewildered, from not being able to combine the knowledge acquired by the senses of touch and sight, and felt disappointed in not having the power of distinguishing at once by her eye, objects which she could so readily distinguish from one another by feeling them.

"On the seventh day, she took notice of the mistress of the house in which she lodged, and observed that she was tall. She asked what the colour of her gown was? to which she was answered, that it was blue? 'so is that thing on your head,' she then observed; which was the case: 'and your handkerchief, that is a different colour;' which was also correct. She added, 'I see you pretty well, I think.' The tea-cups and saucers underwent an examination: 'what are they like?' her brother asked her. 'I don't know,' she replied; 'they look



very queer to me; but I can tell what they are in a minute when I touch them.' She distinguished an orange on the chimney piece, but could form no notion of what it was till she touched it. She seemed now to have become more cheerful, and entertained greater expectation of comfort from her admission into the visible world; and she was very sanguine that she would find her newly acquired faculty of more use to her when she returned home; where every thing was familiar to her.

"On the eighth day, she asked her brother, when at dinner, 'what he was helping himself to?' and when she was told it was a glass of port wine, she replied, 'port wine is dark, and looks to me very ugly.' She observed, when candles were brought into the room, her brother's face in the mirror, as well as that of a lady who was present; she also walked for the first time without assistance, from a chair to a sofa which was on the opposite side of the room, and back again to the chair. When at tea, she took notice of the tray, observed the shining of the japan work, and asked 'what the colour was round the edge?' she was told that it was yellow; upon which she remarked, 'I will know that again.'

"On the ninth day she came down stairs to breakfast in great spirits; she said to her brother, 'I see you very well to-day;' and came up to him and shook hands. She also observed a ticket on a window of a house on the opposite side of the street ("a lodging to let"); and her brother, to convince himself of her seeing it, took her to the window three several times, and to his great gratification, she pointed it out to him distinctly on each trial.

"She spent a great part of the eleventh day looking out of the window, and spoke very little.

"On the twelfth she was advised to walk out, which recommendation pleased her much. Mr. ——— called on her, and she told him she felt quite happy. Her brother walked out with her as her guide; and took her twice round the piazzas of Covent-Garden. She appeared much surprised, but apparently delighted; the clear blue sky first attracted her notice, and she said 'it is the prettiest thing I have ever seen yet, and equally pretty every time I turn round and look at it.' She distinguished the street from the foot pavement distinctly, and stepped from one to the other like a person accustomed to the use of her eyes. Her great curiosity, and the manner in which she stared at the variety of objects, and pointed to them, exciting the observation of many by-standers, her brother soon conducted her home, much against her will.

“ On the thirteenth day nothing particular took place till tea-time, when she observed that there was a different tea-tray, and that it was not a pretty one, but had a dark border; which was a correct description. Her brother asked her to look in the mirror, and tell him if she saw his face in it? to which she answered, evidently disconcerted, ‘ I see my own: let me go away.’

“ She drove in a carriage, on the fourteenth day, four miles on the Wandsworth road; admired most the sky and the fields; noticed the trees, and likewise the river Thames as she crossed Vauxhall bridge. At this time it was bright sunshine, and she said something dazzled her when she looked on the water.

“ On the fifteenth day, being Sunday, she walked to a chapel at some distance, and now evidently saw more distinctly, but appeared more confused than when her sight was less perfect. The people passing on the pavement startled her; and once when a gentleman was going past her, who had a white waistcoat and a blue coat with yellow buttons, which the sunshine brought full in her view, she started so as to draw her brother, who was walking with her, off the pavement. She distinguished the clergyman moving his hands in the pulpit, and observed that he held something in them; this was a white handkerchief.

“ She went in a coach, on the sixteenth day, to pay a visit in a distant part of the town, and appeared much entertained with the bustle in the streets. On asking her how she saw on that day? she answered, ‘ I see a great deal, if I could only tell what I do see; but surely I am very stupid.’

“ Nothing particular took place on the seventeenth day; and when her brother asked her how she was? she replied, ‘ I am well, and see better; but don’t tease me with too many questions, till I have learned a little better how to make use of my eye. All that I can say is, that I am sure, from what I do see, a great change has taken place; but I cannot describe what I feel.’

“ Eighteen days after the last operation had been performed, I attempted to ascertain, by a few experiments, her precise notions of the colour, size, forms, position, motions, and distances of external objects. As she could only see with one eye, nothing could be ascertained respecting the question of double vision. She evidently saw the difference of colours; that is, she received and was sensible of different impressions from different colours. When pieces of paper one and a half inch square, differently coloured, were presented to her, she not only distinguished them at once from one another, but gave a



decided preference to some colours, liking yellow most, and then pale pink. It may be here mentioned, that when desirous of examining an object, she had considerable difficulty in directing her eye to it, and finding out its position, moving her hand as well as her eye in various directions, as a person when blindfolded, or in the dark, gropes with his hands for what he wishes to touch. She also distinguished a large from a small object, when they were both held up before her for comparison. She said she saw different forms in various objects which were shewn to her. On asking what she meant by different forms, such as long, round and square, and desiring her to draw with her finger these forms on her other hand, and then presenting to her eye the respective forms, she pointed to them exactly; she not only distinguished small from large objects, but knew what was meant by above and below; to prove which, a figure drawn with ink was placed before her eye, having one end broad, and the other narrow, and she saw the positions as they really were, and not inverted. She could also perceive motions; for when a glass of water was placed on the table before her, on approaching her hand near it, it was moved quickly to a greater distance, upon which she immediately said, 'you move it; you take it away.'

"She seemed to have the greatest difficulty in finding out the distance of any object, for when an object was held close to her eye, she would search for it by stretching her hand far beyond its position, while on other occasions she groped close to her own face, for a thing far removed from her.

"She learned with facility the names of the different colours, and two days after the coloured papers had been shewn to her, on coming into a room, the colour of which was crimson, she observed that it was red. She also observed some pictures hanging on the red wall of the room in which she was sitting, distinguishing several small figures in them, but not knowing what they represented, and admiring the gilt frames. On the same day, she walked round the pond in the centre of St. James's Square, and was pleased with the glistening of the sun's rays on the water, as well as with the blue sky and green shrubs, the colours of which she named correctly.

"It may be here observed, that she had yet acquired by the use of her sight but very little knowledge of any forms, and was unable to apply the information gained by this new sense, and to compare it with what she had been accustomed to acquire by her sense of touch. When, therefore, the experiment was made of giving her a silver pencil case and a large key to examine with her hands, she discriminated and knew each dis-



tinctly: but when they were placed on the table, side by side, though she distinguished each with her eye, yet she could not tell which was the pencil case and which was the key.

“Nothing farther occurred in the history of this lady’s case worthy of notice, till the twenty-fifth day after the operation. On that day she drove in a carriage for an hour in the Regent’s Park, and on her way seemed more amused than usual, and asked more questions about the objects surrounding her, such as ‘what is that?’ it is a soldier, she was answered; ‘and that, see! see!’ these were candles of various colours at a tallow chandler’s window. ‘Who is that, that has passed us just now?’ it was a person on horseback: ‘but what is that on the pavement, red?’ it was some ladies who wore red shawls. On going into the park, she was asked what she saw particularly, or if she could guess what any of the objects were. ‘Oh yes,’ she replied, ‘there is the sky; that is the grass; yonder is water, and two white things;’ which were two swans. On coming home along Piccadilly, the jewellers’ shops seemed to surprise her much, and her expressions made those around her laugh heartily.

“From this period till the time of her leaving London on the 31st of March, being forty-two days after the operation, she continued almost daily to gain more information of the visible world, but she had yet much to learn. She had acquired a pretty accurate notion of colours, and their different shades and names; and when she came to pay me a farewell visit, she then wore a gown, the first of her own choice, with the light purple colour of which she seemed highly gratified, as well as with her cap, which was ornamented with red ribonds. She had not yet acquired any thing like an accurate knowledge of distance or of forms, and up to this period she continued to be very much confused with every object at which she looked. Neither was she yet able, without considerable difficulty and numerous fruitless trials, to direct her eye to an object; so that when she attempted to look at any thing, she turned her head in various directions until her eye caught the object of which it was in search. She still entertained, however, the same hope which she expressed soon after the operation, that when she got home her knowledge of external things would be more accurate and intelligible, and that when she came to look at those objects which had been so long familiar to her touch, the confusion which the multiplicity of external objects now caused, would in a great measure subside.”

# THE EFFECTS OF EXTERNAL IMPRESSIONS IN HEALTH AND IN DISEASE.

[Continued from Page 124.]

The state of the tongue and mouth is always attended to as a mark of the state of stomach, according to which the sensations of taste are various, and the saliva and mucus vary in quantity, consistence, taste, smell, and colour. Hence wateriness, ptyalism, salivation, or foaming, is apt to occur on the sight of grateful food in indigestion, pyrosis, pregnancy, hydrophobia, epilepsy, scurvy, fever, and small-pox; the first symptom of which last is pain at the stomach, and the chief remedy cold to the surface. Lead, antimony, barytes, fox-glove, opium, or the Guatimala serpent, as well as mercury, excite salivation, which is promoted by a nauseant or emetic, or by different degrees of temperature. A grain or two of a mercurial in the stomach, or on the bare skin, has had the effect; the salivation, like a gleet or mercurial sore, will sometimes continue for months: and when suddenly stopt, is apt to be followed by a violent affection of stomach, with vomiting, only to be allayed by mercury.

If infection be removed before the specific state of stomach and vessel be induced, disease does not take place; and the morbid state itself may, in the case of syphilis, be removed, for a time at least, by copper, or by a course of corrosive sublimate, or by fever, while the disposition may remain, and break out with or without virulence.

Such is the sensibility of the skin as well as stomach, that a cold or hot body, or an astringent applied to either, is apt to produce a contraction over all, and stop some hæmorrhages. Fantonus mentions a man in a fever, in whom blister-issues that had dried up, opened and discharged anew, after the application of other blisters to distant parts. A plaster, on some skins, excites an eruption on other parts. After a suppuration in the fore-arm, a swelling has taken place successively in the arm-pit, the parotid, the leg, the knee, and the groin: A swelled testicle, is allowed to arise merely from irritation. A succession of tumours takes place in the conglobate glands from the mesentery to the neck; and likewise from a compression of the inguinal glands; in the inguinal and axillary from irritation at the toes and fingers, with or without infection; and in the neck and behind the ears from a scratch, a blister, or tinea capitis in the neighbourhood. The pain of a wound, burn, or bruise, is sometimes alleviated as pain begins in ano-



ther part. Pain, spasm, inflammation, and other states are apt to shift, as are ulcers, that is, peculiar states of vessel with peculiar assimilation, as the ichor of cancer, the cheesy-like matter of scrofula, and the stony matter of gout.

Noxious matter seems either rejected by the absorbents at the surface, or assimilated before it meet the chyle in the thoracic duct. A mild substance, like milk or mucilage, injected into a vein, is apt to throw the system into convulsions. The flesh of an animal killed by a poisonous bite or arrow, affords wholesome food; during a course of chalybeates no superfluous iron is detected in the chyle or blood; bile circulating in jaundice does not produce giddiness, dimness of sight, &c. as when in the stomach; colouring and odorous particles, as of madder, logwood, turpentine, garlic, or asparagus, circulate without producing any effect; in syphilis, the fluids, and even secondary ulcers do not generally infect; and though a mercurial may lose, and sulphur acquire oxygen in the system, yet it is not alleged that either is found there but in its mild state.

A morbid state, or a fever attended with inflammation, eruption or ulcer, often takes place suddenly, and runs its course without any infection, applied or generated, or any cause or remedy which acts on the fluids; in the case of infection, the symptoms, as the small-pox eruption, sometimes do not appear, and sometimes continue to appear when the state or the fever is gone; and are affected by external temperature, while the internal one continues the same; some very infectious diseases, as the yaws, admit of cure from mere attention to the general health; an infectious irritation, like others, takes time before it affects the resisting and assimilating power, so as to produce the specific state of vessel and specific matter; during the variolous and syphilitic state, though there is nothing to prevent absorption, any new infection seems to have no constitutional effect; in the case of small-pox, yaws, and some other infections, the system becomes afterwards insusceptible of their action, as it, in some measure, does of that of accustomed ones, as spirits, opium, tobacco, and even febrile contagion; and no satisfying account is given why the absorption, multiplication, or assimilation, with the other effects of an infectious particle are not more immediate, and in proportion to its quantity, and why, after absorption, it should in any case fail to assimilate.

Morbific matter does not seem to be a cause of gout or other diseases, called hereditary, as mania, epilepsy, or scrofula, which are not infectious, and in which, as in all other



cases, the state of the fluids must depend on that of the solids. Gout often attacks persons in seemingly good health, preceded perhaps only by slight symptoms of some affection of the alimentary canal; is subject to frequent, sudden, and distant translations, affecting the joints with inflammation, but the stomach with a state so opposite, that highly stimulating cordials are taken with relief; and no antidote to gouty matter there, whether supposed acid or otherwise acrimonious, was ever thought of.

The remedies in syphilis tend to bring the stomach, and consequently the vessels, from their syphilitic state, and to keep the functions in a proper condition till the impression cease to operate, the morbid state be changed, and the habit overcome. The remedies affect the assimilating organs, and except, perhaps, the corrosive sublimate, improve them, as appears from the corpulence to which they dispose. Infants have remarkably assimilating and resisting powers; slaver a great deal, are not easily affected by syphilis, or easily salivated by mercury, and are easily cured. Mercury, and opium when it succeeds, seem to put the stomach in a peculiar state, somewhat, perhaps, like that of infancy, and the salivation does not appear to be from absorption any more than when it occurs from an emetic, pregnancy, or worms; or than giddiness is when it arises from the use of hemlock.

Inflammation by mustard, &c. does not excite strangury, as cantharides are apt to do. It often ceases the moment the blister is removed, the effect of the impression is allayed by a poultice, or the stomach is soothed by a diluent, or by camphorated oil applied to the surface. Cantharides internally relieve paralytic strangury, and incontinence of urine; strangury frequently occurs from affections of the stomach, as gastritis; and the uva ursi, alkali, or super-carbonated alkali, whose effects seem chiefly confined to the stomach, occasionally relieve even fits of the stone.

Contagions, whether marshy, human, or specific, are sometimes traced to smells, as a cadaverous one, a heavy earthy one, that of the confluent small-pox, dysenteric stools; or they may induce the febrile state, the only steady character of which is weakness, though the impression do not just excite the state of sensation. It may be in a way similar to what happens from antipathy in regard to cheese, a cat, &c., or that of the insensible action of various irritations, as of worms. A gentleman who cannot bear being in a room where there is any cheese, though he does not see or smell it in the least, instantly feels a sense of weakness, after some time sickness, with

a cold sweat, and faints if he endeavours to brave it. In this way contagion may, through the organ of smell, affect the stomach and system. Inoculated, it produces the specific state, inflammation and suppuration, and in the case of small-pox without predisposition, the stomach does not yield too much, and its energy is kept up by cold on the surface, so that a slight eruption happens sometimes without fever. Heat on a part seems to increase the variolous state of vessel. Cool air on the surface recovers persons from the state induced by carbonic, azotic, and other noxious airs, the first symptom of which is vomiting; from syncope, and from the still-born state, the first exertion from which is seen to be about the region of the stomach; and the cold seems to operate, as in discharges of blood, by exciting the stomach from its passive state. Affections of the stomach, as observed, mark fever in its attack, progress, remission, crisis, and cure; all its causes affect the stomach; it has no symptom but what an immediate application to the stomach may produce, and its evacuation remove; and it is often prevented and cured by remedies affecting only that organ. Its forms of intermittent, remittent, continual, yellow, bilious, and dysenteric, seem all related, prevailing at the same time, changing their types, and running into one another.

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ON HEADACHES ARISING FROM INDIGESTION. By Dr. PARIS.

Though we have in previous Numbers endeavoured, in plain and clear language, to lay before our readers *our* opinions upon the subject of Headaches, arising not only from indigestion, but from most other causes, yet from the importance of the subject, we consider it due to our readers to put them in possession of as much information as possible upon a point of such moment; we shall, therefore, quote Dr. Paris's opinions without comment, leaving our readers to draw their own conclusions.

From the intimate sympathy which subsists between the nerves of the stomach and the brain, it is not extraordinary that any casual derangement of the digestive process should communicate its influence to the head. Dr. Warren has described this complaint with an accuracy which, as far as description goes, leaves nothing to be desired. He states that there are two forms of dyspeptic headache; the one he refers to a fault in the stomach, the other to a defective action of the upper bowels. The former is distinguished by a languid and feeble, but not an unnaturally frequent pulse; the tongue is



whitish and slightly coated : the edges are of a pale red colour. The patient perceives a sensation of mistiness before the eyes, and general indistinctness of vision ; he feels a dull pain or weight in the head, attended with some confusion, is slightly giddy, and fearful of falling. These symptoms are attended with slight nausea, or an uneasiness and sense of irritation in the stomach ; and often also by a feeling of constriction about the fauces, accompanied with a watery secretion from the posterior part of the mouth. Coldness, slight stiffness or numbness of the fingers, are sometimes present ; and the other parts of the system are, in general, affected with a great degree of nervous sensibility. The second species of headache, or that depending upon irritation in the bowels, probably in the duodenum, is remarkable for the appearance of brilliant ocular spectra which distress the patient ; there is chilliness of the body, and coldness and dampness of the hands and feet ; the pain in the head is very severe, attended with a sensation of coldness and tightness of the scalp, slight giddiness, weight, distention and stiffness of the eye-balls. In some cases, as these symptoms increase, they are accompanied by tingling and numbness of the fingers and hand. The tongue, in this disorder, is usually covered with a yellowish white fur, and is often very considerably coated with it. The pulse is of the natural frequency, but languid ; nausea is often present, but seldom in so great a degree as to produce vomiting. There is usually flatulency, and a sensation of dryness and inactivity of the bowels. This last symptom I consider as pathognomonic ; the patient feels as if his bowels had lost their sensibility, and were unable to propel their contents, which occasions a peculiar sensation of weight and stoppage. Dr. Warren observes, that the appearances of the stools vary so much, that a general rule cannot be drawn from them ; but he believes, that in all cases of headache of this description, they will be found of an unhealthy quality. The most frequent appearance in them is bile in too large quantity ; sometimes of various colours, and of different degrees of viscosity ; occasionally the evacuations have a natural appearance, but contain portions of undigested food. At other times, the stools are of a faint yellow colour, and float upon water, giving out an odour like that of saliva : a very common appearance, especially where there has been great dejection of spirits, is a loose stool, of a dark greenish brown colour, in smell resembling that of the grounds of sour beer.

The stomach headache generally occurs in the earlier stage of digestion ; that which may be termed the duodenal headache, takes place when the food has passed into the intestine.



The former is relieved by an emetic, the latter receives no mitigation from such a remedy; this is consonant with our theory of its origin; whereas, a purgative, as we should expect, generally cuts short the paroxysm, by hastening the expulsion of the offending cause.

From the symptoms above related, the practitioner will not be at a loss to discriminate between these two species of headache; but pain in the head may arise from causes distinct from the alimentary canal; as from congestion of the brain, from its internal disorganization, from diseased bones of the skull, or from a deranged state of the nervous system. It will be useful to point out the diagnostic symptoms by which each of these affections may be distinguished. Dr. Warren observes, that headaches which arise from congestion of the brain, are distinguished from those of dyspeptic origin, by the presence of plethoric symptoms, by a full and oppressed pulse, by a difference in the character of the pain, which, in the headache arising from fulness of blood, is accompanied with throbbing, and a sense of action in the system, which alarms the feelings; while the pain of dyspeptic headaches is described as being either a dull aching, or else a racking pain, often moving from one part of the head to another, and attended with soreness of the scalp. In the first, the eyes look red and full: in the second, they have a depressed and languid appearance. Those which arise from internal disorganization, the same eminent physician considers to be marked by an acute fixed pain, by a quick, irritable, and sometimes irregular pulse; but should pressure on the brain have taken place, the pulse is full and slow, but is not attended with the steady violent heat which accompanies sudden congestion of blood in that organ. When headache is caused by chronic disease of the skull, it is distinguished by the constancy of the pain, which is confined to one spot, whence violent shootings proceed to some fixed point. As the disorder advances, slight symptoms of pressure on the brain ensue; and on examination, a tenderness of the bone is observed. The nervous headache is distinguished by the absence of constitutional disorder, and by the smallness of the space on the surface of the head which the pain occupies.

There sometimes occurs a soreness of the scalp, with shooting pains, which are produced by the slightest touch. This affection, I believe, always depends upon some derangement of the biliary system.

There is a species of headache which would appear to depend upon a languid circulation through the brain; it occurs

after an excess of wine ; or, in women, during the catamenial discharge. It is described as rather resembling numbness than pain, or that sensation which is produced by intense cold. The languor of the circulation, pallor of the countenance, and other symptoms of debility, will offer sufficient means for distinguishing it.

If the dyspeptic headache be allowed to take its course, it will generally terminate in a few hours ; but when it has become habitual, it is often protracted through one, two, or more days. Its cure is to be effected by those means which we have afterwards to consider, as the best modes of rectifying the errors of the digestive organs.

Cutaneous eruptions are not unfrequently produced by a fit of indigestion ; such affections are popularly denominated *surfeits* ; they are generally of short duration, and disappear on the removal of the offending cause ; although severe and inveterate diseases of the skin are sometimes established, and continued by a chronic disease of the stomach or other digestive organs. The best mode of treating such affections, and the diet which should be employed for their cure, will form a subject for future consideration.

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#### ON INDIGESTION ARISING FROM BILIARY DERANGEMENT.

It is evident that a regular and healthy secretion of bile is indispensable to the act of chylication, and to the proper action of the intestines, and that a deficiency, redundancy, or a vitiated condition of this fluid, may act as an exciting cause of indigestion. If it be deficient, the chyme cannot undergo that decomposition in the duodenum by which chyle is formed and separated ; and as the bowels are, at the same time, deprived of their natural stimulus, the undigested mass is not protruded, but is left to undergo various morbid changes ; air is extricated, the alimentary secretions become depraved, and the whole series of the digestive functions are thus suspended, or deranged. If the bile be too copiously secreted, it is poured out in large quantities into the intestine, producing temporary diarrhœa, and part of it being regurgitated into the stomach, during the act of vomiting, which in the first instance is excited by the sympathy of the stomach with the duodenum and hepatic system, occasions a train of symptoms of greater or less severity, according to the circumstances of each particular case. If the bile be vitiated in quality, it will not only be incapable of accomplishing the alimentary change which it is destined to fulfil, but it will irritate and fret the mucous mem-



brane by its contact. It is evident that the violence and extent of the symptoms produced by such causes will be liable to vary; and the practitioner must not imagine, that the absence of diarrhoea, colic, and other violent feelings, affords evidence of the healthy state of the biliary secretions. Derangements in these functions often proceed insidiously, and lay the foundation for a serious disease, which, although latent for a period, will ultimately be kindled into activity, whenever an exciting cause shall fire the train.

To explain the origin of biliary irregularities, we have to consider the sympathies by which the liver may be influenced. The investigation of the diseases of warm climates, and the corrected views, with regard to the autumnal complaints of our climate, having sufficiently established the existence of the sympathy between the skin and the liver. Whenever an organ has been in a state of over-excitement, it is liable to fall into a corresponding state of torpor. The perspiration is, therefore, more apt to be checked after the continuance of hot weather, than at any other season of the year; and since the same observation may be extended to the liver, we shall readily perceive the cause of those biliary affections which so generally occur in this country during the autumnal season. The application of cold to the feet, or whatever contributes to check the perspiratory functions, may create, in those predisposed to such complaints, a *bilious* attack. The sympathy which subsists between the stomach and liver, has already been adverted to. It seems a wise provision, that the biliary function should be connected, by a close sympathy, with that of the stomach, in order that the food, converted into chyme, may meet with a necessary quantity of bile in the duodenum. In consequence of such a sympathy, irritation in the stomach is generally attended with an increased secretion of bile; the action of nausea is usually followed by such an effect. Hence, melted butter, every thing fried, pastry, and other indigestible materials, are popularly denominated *bilious*; and although such a term countenances a latitude of expression, which is inconsistent with the more definite notions of strict pathology, yet it cannot be said to be erroneous. As the varied and increased action of a gland has much influence in determining the nature of the fluid secreted, we cannot be at a loss to explain the condition in which the bile is secreted under such circumstances; indeed, it is frequently on such occasions of a degenerated colour, extremely acrid, and scarcely possessing the qualities of bile. Dr. Saunders considers it probable, that from the quantity secreted, and the ra-



pid manner in which it is poured into the duodenum, there is not time sufficient for a perfect secretion.

We may therefore agree with Dr. Saunders, that whenever, either from an irregular distribution of nervous energy, or from the operation of indigestible and acescent food, the tone of the stomach falls below the degree necessary to the digestive process, the liver immediately sympathises with it, and bile is no longer emulged into the duodenum, until a reaction takes place, when its quantity is morbidly increased in proportion to the degree of previous atony. If this occur to such an extent, that its free admission into the intestine be impeded, it will accumulate in the excretory ducts of the liver, and either regurgitate into the system by the hepatic veins, or be absorbed by the lymphatic system, and a yellow suffusion of the skin will follow.

The abuse of spirituous liquors, from their operation on the stomach and brain, is a fertile cause of biliary derangement, and from the sympathy between the sensorium and the liver, the effects of strong and sudden mental emotions, in occasioning an irregular secretion of bile, will also admit of satisfactory explanation. [In our next we shall give the Doctor's "Progress and Treatment of Chronic Indigestion."]

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#### ON THE PHYSICAL TREATMENT OF NEW BORN CHILDREN, &c. By Dr. DEWEEs.

##### *First Period.*

Every child born alive, and at or near the full time, cries as soon as the surrounding air gains free admission to its lungs. This grateful sound repays in an instant the suffering mother for her pain, her anxiety, and her peril; or at least, it produces a temporary oblivion to them. But unaccustomed to the sound, and having all her life attached the idea of pain to the exercise of the functions of crying, she becomes alarmed should this effort be continued any time, and most anxiously inquires "why the child cries so violently?"

We will endeavour to explain, for her sake, this interesting question. The child while in the womb is surrounded by water, and is enclosed within walls, if we may so term them, of limited extent. In the first, it securely floats, as it has no use for its lungs while thus imprisoned; and against the second, it oftentimes tries the strength of its little limbs, with much advantage to itself, if not always with comfort to its mother. As the medium in which it floats is of the same temperature as that of its mother's body, it may be considered as constantly living in a warm bath. The uses of this bath are, 1st, to preserve the child as much as possible from external accidents;

becomes almost an independent being ; for its immediate connexion with its mother is at once cut off ; instead of a bath of most grateful temperature, it is plunged into an atmosphere almost always a little lower than the one it has been in. the habit of revelling in ; and sometimes into one very much below it ; and instead of the confined surface against which it was wont to exercise its sense of touch it is now thrown, as regards it, into almost illimitable space. The first of the changes we have mentioned makes a powerful, and, doubtless, sometimes a painful impression upon its extensive surface of skin. Its little muscles are necessarily thrown into action ; and as a consequence, the chest becomes expanded, and the air by which it is now surrounded enters its empty lungs, and the action of "crying" is instituted.

#### *Of Crying.*

Crying should be looked upon as an exercise of much importance, both to the immediate and mediate advantage of the being. It is immediately useful, as it facilitates the passage of blood through the lungs, where until this moment it had been unaccustomed to travel, but which now is of *sine qua non* to its existence ; 2d, it serves more effectually for the expansion of the air cells of the lungs ; thereby presenting a larger surface for the action of the atmospheric air, from which the most important consequences are to flow ; such as the due oxygenation of the blood, on which every healthy function of the system, to a greater or less extent, depends ; the unloading of the system of certain materials, the retention of which would be highly injurious ; and thus contributing to either the direct or indirect production of animal heat. The mediate advantage of "crying" consists in its giving strength and tonicity to these organs, by thoroughly expanding the air cells, and thus early and constantly accustoming them to being stretched at a period the most favourable to this extension, and at the same time freeing the lungs from mucus that is constantly pouring into these cells ; and thus preventing any injurious accumulations within them.

It may be farther observed on the subject of "crying," that this act is not always expressive of pain ; it is intended very often as an appeal to the tenderness of the mother, when the child is impelled to make its necessities known—hunger and thirst, or sometimes, upon much more important occasions to itself, namely, uneasiness from want of change of position ; for a constrained situation renders it not only uncomfortable, but it is really injurious to the child if too long continued. The poor infant is too often condemned to one position, let this be



ever so long, provided it express no objection to it by its cries; the consequences are, 1st, that the circulation is much impeded on the side on which it lies, from the compression the parts must suffer from the weight of the child itself; and, 2d, its limbs are unequally exercised, especially when the mother or nurse has a favourite side for the child to rest upon—this election should never be suffered, for reasons too obvious to need mention. We may, however, observe *en passant*, that the child should not be permitted to continue longer than an hour, or two at the farthest, in any one position; the fear of waking it should never prevent attention so important to its health. Besides, we know from ample experience, that the child very soon becomes accustomed to the operation of turning, or changing its position, and will be almost sure to express the relief this attention affords, by instantly putting all its little limbs upon the full stretch, and again “addressing itself to sleep.”

We would particularly warn mothers and nurses against placing the child upon its back; as this position may be followed by very serious consequences, if it chance to throw up the contents of its stomach—we once knew suffocation from this cause.

In very young children there is a rapid accumulation of the excitability of the system, arising from their passive condition; and which requires the employment of the muscles to keep it down to the healthy point: and “crying” is this “waste gate,” to an excess of excitability. This act, therefore, is more easily provoked in children, than the equilibrium of excitement and excitability may be preserved. “Crying” is most useful in many instances for the same reasons, even to the adult—who has not witnessed the relief afforded by a gush of tears to an oppressed heart! and in our practice we take frequent advantage of this circumstance, by permitting, nay, sometimes soliciting, “cries,” at the trying and important moment of a woman becoming a mother.

To show farther the importance of this act, by creating a diversion of the excitability and excitement, Dr. Rush used to relate to us in his lectures the case of a gentleman, in South Carolina, who was about to be cut for the stone. This gentleman thought it beneath the dignity of a man to express pain upon any occasion; he therefore refused to submit to the usual precaution of securing the hands and feet by bandages, declaring to his surgeon he had nothing to fear from his being untied, as he would not move a muscle of his body—and he truly kept his word; but he died instantly after the operation, from apoplexy. In his case the excitability and excitement



were too much accumulated in the brain; and it yielded to their influence, from the want of some outlet for the one or diversion for the other.

But in attaching so much consequence to "crying," we are not to be supposed to advise either the provoking of it, or perpetuating it, by any artificial means; nor to consider this act as always expressive of either pain or uneasiness, and to require the interference of the mother or nurse; for on the contrary, we are fully aware how readily a habit of crying is generated by a too prompt attention to the demands of the child; and also, that the most clamorous children, are those you are the most solicitous to appease.—Crying may, however, be indicative of disease; it will therefore be considered again under this head.

### *Of Sleep.*

New-born children may be said to sleep constantly, their waking moments furnish but exceptions to the rule. This is a wise regulation of nature, since it permits a renewal of the excitability, as fast as it is expended. In this early stage of life the arterial and the absorbent systems are much employed for the purposes of digestion, of secretion, of deposition, or growth; and consequently, much excitability is required for the various contingencies now mentioned. And it would seem in general, more is generated, if we may so express ourselves, than is absolutely necessary, as it has to be carried off, as just noticed, by occasional crying, &c. This passive condition of new-born children is highly favourable to the healthy expansion of the body; for where it is interrupted by some derangement of the nervous system, which declares itself by too frequent crying and watchfulness, the child ceases to thrive.

It is some time before the nerves of hearing appear to be affected by sound; hence, we see children almost insensible to loud noises, even weeks after their birth. This appears to be an especial care of providence, that the important state of sleep should not be too easily interrupted. This sense, however, after a time becomes exquisitely sensible; and if it were to be too much indulged by not obliging the child to become familiar to it, and that as early as possible, much mischief would arise.

We have often consulted upon this occasion: over careful mothers think that sleep should never be abridged or interrupted; they therefore keep their nurseries so extremely silent during the sleep of the child, that it is constantly awakened in much alarm, whenever any sudden or unexpected noise assails its ear: we have known children many times rendered

so sensible to noise during sleep, as to be roused by even a light tread upon the floor; and when a louder noise has been made, to awake almost in convulsions, and always in extreme affright, and loud crying. To guard against these evils, and they are evils of much greater magnitude than might at first sight appear—since in many instances they have been perpetuated through life—we constantly recommend as a practice in all nurseries, to let the child fall asleep in the midst of noise, and never to consign the room to silence, as a precaution during the whole of its nap. If you habituate children to fall asleep while surrounded by noise, and not interrupt that noise by design during the period of sleep, they will soon support without the least agitation, or other inconvenience, any common degree of it that may be made in their chamber.

Much advantage is derived from this plan—1st, a morbid sensibility of the organs of hearing is not generated; consequently, the child will be exempt from all the evils and inconveniences this condition would inflict; 2d, the functions of the body will be better performed, since they will not be interrupted by the repeated wakings of the child; 3d, the child will derive all the advantages which an undisturbed sleep will give; 4th, the duration of its sleep can be better calculated on; 5th, it will save its mother or nurse much unnecessary anxiety, as well as trouble.

If the habit of stillness during sleep has been established in the nursery, the quicker it be broken the better; this, if properly attended to, can be done in a short period; 1st, by obliging the child to fall asleep during a moderate noise, by not abstracting the noise from it—it will contend, for some little time, but not long; 2d, by continuing the noise during the period of sleep: by this plan, it will soon become familiar to it, and after a while may even sleep better than before.

### *Of the Necessities of the Child.*

The necessities of the child are no less remarkably changed than its relations. It must now breathe a pure air, or it dies; it must now receive and prepare food by the operation of its own stomach, for the purposes of its system, or it sinks; it must now be protected against the variations of temperature, or it will perish. In a word, a new kind of life commences from this moment; and that this may be preserved in the best possible manner, is the end and object of Physical Education. It will now be easily understood why this species of education should commence at the period we have assigned to it; since it will be obvious that the more perfect the health is of the in-



dividuals who marry, the better the foetal life has been conducted; the more successful will physical agents be, in properly developing and perfecting the animal life which is to follow.

It will be seen that the body is now to be subjected to the influence of entirely new agents; and these may be considered under several distinct heads, as follow:—1st, Air, 2d. Food; 3d, Clothing; 4th, Exercise; 5th, Cleanliness. The agents we have just enumerated are of the first importance to the welfare of the being on whom they are to act; their operations commence with the first moments of animal life; and they are perpetuated, under one modification or another, to the last period of human existence. We shall therefore take up the consideration of each of these powers in the order we have placed them—and first of air.

### *Of the Air.*

By the air we mean that immense mass of permanently elastic fluid which surrounds the globe we inhabit. This substance is absolutely essential to the continuance of life in every species of animal: and its effects upon the human system are healthy or otherwise, in proportion to its purity. But this condition must be constantly varying, as it may lose one of its principles, or as it may receive an excess of another; or be loaded with noxious exhalations from vegetable, animal, or mineral substances, especially in great cities.

Modern chemistry has done much to illustrate the condition of our atmosphere, by pointing out the means by which it retains its vital purity, as well as by informing us in what this vital purity consists, and the manner it becomes deteriorated. Until the discovery of oxygen as a component part of our atmosphere, it was altogether conjecture as to what it lost or gained by combustion, respiration, or vegetation. The phenomena of combustion and of respiration were well marked and described by the ancients: but their reasoning upon the causes of the changes which the air underwent by these processes was altogether founded upon assumed principles; and the world was not much enlightened upon this subject until oxygen was simultaneously discovered, by Scheele in Sweden, and Priestley in England, who declared it to be a constituent of the atmosphere! though Mayow, two hundred years before, had nearly arrived at the same discovery and conclusions.

For the discovery of the chief means by which the atmosphere maintains its purity, we are indebted to the experiments of the ingenious Dr. Ingenhouz. He found that plants of every



kind, while growing, and acted upon by the sun, yielded this salubrious air; the deadly nightshade, and the most innocent plant, alike gave out this gas.

There is therefore every reason to believe that the atmosphere, in its extended sense, is as pure now as in the days of the patriarchs. If then, life be shorter now than it was at that period, (a circumstance perhaps wanting proof,)\* it is certainly not owing to a defect of purity in the general atmosphere. It must have its foundation in circumstances independent of any general atmospheric impurity.

These circumstances, we are of opinion, are the changes in the habits and manners of mankind at present, from those in the time we have just alluded to. Formerly man was simple in his mode of life and laborious in his habits; his occupations were confined very much to those of the hunter, the shepherd, or the tiller of the earth.

From this it would seem to be ascertained that air may be either pure, or be more or less deteriorated, as it may be subjected to such causes as may be capable of altering its chemical or sensible properties. The chemical properties of the air are principally affected by combustion and by respiration; and the changes which it may undergo are in proportion to the extent or degree of the one, or the continuance of the other.

But to make this better understood by those who have never devoted any time to the subject, it may be necessary to state, that the "atmospheric air" is principally composed of two distinct substances or gases, in certain proportions to each other. One of these is called oxygen; the other nitrogen. It is the former which maintains combustion, and supports respiration; for these processes may be continued so long as this exists in the combination; but the perfection of either will de-

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\* Hufeland says, "It is commonly believed, that during the early periods of the world, the lives of its inhabitants were more youthful and more perfect; that these primitive men had a gigantic size, incredible strength, and a most astonishing duration of life." "Some have not hesitated to seriously ascribe to our forefather Adam the height of nine hundred yards, and the age of almost a thousand years. But the rational and accurate investigation of modern philosophy has converted the supposed size of giants, found in different parts of the world, into those of the elephant and rhinoceros (and we may now add the mammoth; and acute theologians have shown, that the chronology of the early ages was not the same as that used at present. Some, particularly Hensler, have proved, with the highest probability, that the year till the time of Abraham, consisted of only three months; that it was afterwards extended to eight; and that it was not till the time of Joseph that it was made to consist of twelve. These assertions are, in a certain degree, confirmed by some of the Eastern nations, who still reckon only three months to the year."

pend upon the due proportion of oxygen. It must, however, be remembered, that an excess of oxygen does no material injury to either.

Now, as combustion and respiration are always going on in the habitable world, it follows there must be a constant loss of oxygen; and if there were no sources or means by which it could be supplied, the "atmospheric air" would be constantly suffering deterioration, even until it were exhausted of its vital principle. But a kind providence has permitted a supply of oxygen in as great proportion as it is taken from the atmosphere: and thus, by new processes, it maintains its qualities in a general sense at all times, in pretty nearly the same degree of purity.

The means by which the lost oxygen is supplied are no less certain than extensive; thus all the living vegetable world emit it, so long as they are operated upon by sunshine; and decomposition of water furnishes another extensive source of supply.

From what has been said, it will readily appear that combustion, and respiration which is in fact a kind of combustion, tend to diminish this vital property of the air, and in proportion to that loss is it unfit to maintain either: it must be therefore evident, that the air which has been once breathed is less fit for another operation, in the exact proportion to the diminution of the oxygen it may have contained; and if this process be sufficiently long continued it will be entirely exhausted, and in its place will be found a quantity of carbonic acid gas, equal to the removed quantity of oxygen, combined with the usual or original bulk of nitrogen: neither of which is respirable. Hence the air of great cities is necessarily less pure than that of the surrounding country—1st, by having more causes constantly operating to destroy its chemical, and to alter its sensible qualities; and 2d, by having fewer means to restore the expended oxygen, and to abstract from it its carbonic acid gas, &c.

Independently of the greater consumption of vital air, and the inadequate means to supply it in great cities, there are other causes constantly operating to render it still more impure than respiration alone is capable of doing. Combustion, fermentation, and exhalations from putrid and other bodies, all tend to deteriorate the already too much impaired air, and will render cities less healthy than the surrounding country: and perhaps pretty constantly in the proportion we have mentioned.

Therefore, it is no way surprising that the mortality among children should be excessive in cities, since their stamina are



incapable of supporting either the loss of so much oxygen, or the influence of the various miasmata by which they are constantly surrounded: hence, agreeably to calculation, more than one half of those who are born, die before the third year. It is true, we must not attribute this excessive mortality exclusively to the causes just mentioned; there are others constantly operating to this effect, especially among the poor, such as bad nursing, and perhaps worse food.

Rousseau, with a mixture of truth and prejudice, inveighs bitterly against men shutting themselves up in cities—he says, “mankind were not formed to be heaped together in shoals, but to spread themselves over the face of the earth, to cultivate it. The more they assemble together, the more they corrupt each other. Man is, of all animals, the least adapted to live in herds. Flocks of men like flocks of sheep, would all perish in a short time. Their breath is destructive to their fellow-creatures; nor is it less so in a literal than a figurative sense.” In these few sentences we see at once his plan of education, and the impossibility of reducing it to practice; for all could not be cultivators of the soil any more than they could all be shoemakers or tailors. And though we admit that cities are less healthy than the country, yet all men could not live in the country; and cities ever have and always will be built, from the very nature of things. Nor is it difficult to foresee the consequences, should the genius of man tempt him to spread himself widely over the face of the earth, and all become cultivators of the soil; other evils would necessarily arise, which would be equally destructive of human life.

Look at man in this condition, wherever he may be found, and what is it we see? Neither a more rapid increase of population, more brotherly love, greater longevity, nor greater improvement of the soil! And though we admit there may be a greater exemption from disease in the country, it does not secure a greater share of either happiness or population. Indeed, if we may credit what is found in books upon the relative conditions of man in a savage and in a civilized state, it would appear that cultivation of the mind is even favourable to long life; and though there may be more general health in a savage state, there is less length of life. The instances of longevity among our aborigines are fewer than in refined life; so that what one gains by a greater freedom from disease, the other acquires by an increase of years. Rousseau's scheme of happiness for man is therefore altogether Utopian.



ON THE MORBID SENSIBILITY OF THE STOMACH AND BOWELS.

By Dr. JAMES JOHNSON, M.D., &c.

We resume our extracts (as the Doctor himself occasionally says in the *Medico-Chirurgical*) from the above work, for the purpose of allowing our readers to judge of the value of those *views* termed *new*, which the author puts forth a claim to. We prefer giving our extracts without comment, leaving our readers to judge for themselves. Dr. Johnson says—

“The skin and its functions are very much affected in bilio-dyspeptic complaints. It is either dry and constricted, or partially perspirable, with feelings of alternate chilliness and unpleasant heat, especially about the hands and feet. The skin, indeed, in these complaints, is remarkably altered from its natural condition; and the complexions of both males and females are so completely changed, that the patients themselves are constantly reminded by their mirrors of the derangement in the digestive organs. The intimate sympathy between the external surface of the body and the stomach, liver, and alimentary canal, is now universally admitted, and explains the reciprocal influence of the one on the other. Many of the remote causes, indeed, of indigestion and liver affection will be found to have made their way through the cutaneous surface.

“One of the most striking phenomena attendant on derangement of function in the liver and alimentary canal, is loss of flesh and of muscular power. The emaciation is easily accounted for, by the deficient supply of nutriment from an imperfect apparatus; and, it is not a little remarkable, that the liver-affection accelerates the loss of flesh much more than the stomach complaint. The symptoms of dyspepsia may be very severe indeed, and yet emaciation will be very trifling; but let the function of the liver be much disturbed, and the flesh disappears with great rapidity: This is a strong proof that the bile is essential to the change of our food into healthy chyle.

“But the loss of strength, in this complaint, is out of all proportion to the waste of flesh. This is one of the most characteristic features of the disease, and is much more connected with nervous irritation in the stomach and bowels than with disorder of the liver. I have seen this prostration of strength in the highest degree where the biliary secretion was perfectly healthy, but where the nerves of the *primæ viæ* were extremely irritable. It is a *sense* of debility rather than actual debility. It is infinitely more distressing than real weakness. The least exertion, even that of stooping to take up a book, or stretching

out the arm to take hold of any object, will cause such a feeling of inability for muscular action as quite depresses the spirits of the individual. Yet, perhaps, in less than three hours after this, when the food has passed from the stomach, or its remains from the bowels, the same individual will be capable of walking a mile with comparatively little fatigue. This is a point which should be particularly inquired into, when questioning the patient. For the state above described is not one of actual debility, but of irritation. The patient may, it is true, be much weaker than when in health; but this debility is uniform, and proportioned to the decrease of muscular fibre; whereas, the distressing sense of debility, now under consideration, is out of all proportion to the emaciation—is not uniformly the same—and is always greater when there is food in the stomach or bad secretions in the bowels, than when both are empty. It is, in fact, a sympathetic debility, from nervous irritation in the alimentary canal. The distinction between these two kinds of debility is the more necessary, as the treatment is somewhat different. Bark, wine, rich food, and tonics, are not the remedies for debility arising from gastric and intestinal irritation. The wretched feeling from this source is exasperated rather than relieved by tonics and stimulants, unless very carefully employed in combination with soothing medicine, and diet of very easy digestion.

“In respect to a symptom on which much stress has been laid by Dr. Philip, as marking an important stage of indigestion, namely, tenderness at the epigastrium, *on pressure*, I have already made some observations. That it exists in every stage of indigestion, I venture to affirm—and I will go one step farther, for I have no hesitation in averring that, if a whole regiment of soldiers were turned out and their epigastria pressed with the pointed fingers, and with the force which Dr. Philip uses, they would all wince, from the General downwards. With the following observation of Dr. Philip, I most cordially agree:—“The patient in general, is not aware of this tenderness till it is pointed out by the physician.” As for its being any criterion of organic disease in the liver, I have already expressed my conviction in the negative—and that it is characteristic of an inflammatory state, or incipient organic disease of the pyloric orifice of the stomach, I cannot, for several reasons, admit. One of these reasons is, that there is often much more tenderness in the epigastrium, in functional disorder, than in actual and unequivocal organic disease, as in schirrus of the pylorus, for example. Another reason is, that this tenderness in the epigastrium is frequently, if not generally, relieved by bitters and mild



tonics with light animal food, which would not be the case if it depended on inflammatory action or incipient change of structure. A third reason is, that the dyspeptic patient, in whom this tenderness is so conspicuous, is proverbial for long life, and dies, at last, without any organic disease of the stomach. Let Dr. Philip himself bear witness. "It is a curious fact," says he, "and one of the greatest importance in the treatment, *that the organic affection rarely takes place in the original seat of the disease*, but in other organs with which the stomach sympathizes." This is a Proteian doctrine; for it must ever elude the proofs afforded by the scalpel. If the patient die of tubercles in the lungs, abscess in the brain, aneurism of the heart, enlargement of the liver and its consequences, or any other organic disease, dyspepsy having previously existed, we have only to say that the inflammatory action and change of structure began in the stomach, but shifted its seat, and ended in a distant part. "Thus," says Dr. Philip, "when the body is examined after death, the patient *is said* to have died of disease of some of these parts, and there is nothing in the appearance of the organs to distinguish such affections from diseases which originate in the organs themselves." It would be very easy to turn the arms of this doctrine against itself. Organic disease of the brain, for example, very frequently shews itself more, especially at an early stage, in disordered function of the stomach, than in disordered function of the intellect, and, at such a period, the patient would be said to labour under indigestion. But, as the malady advances the function of the brain and nervous system become unequivocally disturbed, and then it might be said the disease was extending itself sympathetically to the organ of the mind. At length, on death taking place, the brain would be found disorganized, and the stomach sound; when Dr. Philip would ingeniously explain the matter by the above mode of reasoning. Again, if sympathetic affections end so frequently, as Dr. Philip imagines, in organic disease, how is it that, in fatal affections of the brain from chronic disorganization, where the functions of the stomach are proverbially deranged from sympathy with the sensorium, (all sympathies being reciprocal) we so rarely find any organic change in the stomach? Illustrations of this remark are innumerable. I may only just allude to a remarkable instance published by Dr. Chambers, where a large tubercle growing in the brain shewed all, or almost all, its bad effects on the stomach for a great length of time, and yet, on dissection, the stomach was found healthy, and the seat of disease in the brain. In short, while I agree with Dr. Philip, that every part of the body sympathizes readily with the stomach, whether in health or in dis-



ease, I do contend, from attentive observation and long experience, that these sympathetic affections of distant parts end, comparatively speaking, but rarely, in organic disease, and, consequently, that Dr. Philip's doctrine is calculated to excite a great deal too much of alarm in the mind of the patient, as well as in that of the inexperienced practitioner. As Dr. Philip contends for inflammation as the pathognomonic character of indigestion in its second stage, it was incumbent on him to shew all the proof of which the case is susceptible. He acknowledges that when the patient dies, it is of the organic disease in a remote part, which was originally only sympathetic of the disease in the digestive apparatus, the latter being no longer the seat of disease, and consequently, exhibiting no alteration of structure on dissection. So far so good. But as indigestion, in all its stages, is one of the most common diseases which we meet, and as numbers of people are daily dying suddenly of other diseases or accidents, *during the second stage of indigestion*, why does not Dr. Philip bring forward proofs of inflammation and incipient organic disease of the digestive apparatus, existing in that stage, as developed by dissection? This is the way in which we arrive at the knowledge of incipient changes of structure in other diseases not mortal in their early stages. But Dr. Philip offers us no such proof, and the conclusion is, that he could not. It will hardly be considered an answer to this objection, that the pyloric orifice of the stomach is often found indurated in dram-drinkers. No one can deny that disease of the stomach may be brought on by such practices, but these cases have little analogy with the common dyspepsia so prevalent in civilized life, where intemperance is on a very moderate scale. I have admitted more than some physicians will admit, that sympathetic affection of the chest, from disorder of the liver and digestive organs, may and does end occasionally in organic disease. But we must recollect that disease of the lungs destroys nearly a fourth of the population, and that it is highly probable that latent tubercles existed previously to the disorder of the stomach in almost all those who die of dyspeptic phthisis. The disease is therefore *called into action* rather than *produced* by the disorder of the digestive organs. Perhaps, the same observation may partly apply to the other organic diseases *sympathetically* called forth.

But to return to the subject of tenderness at the epigastrium. I contend, for the reasons already stated, and for many others which I could adduce, that it is owing to *irritation* rather than inflammation, in the great majority of cases, and, consequently, that it is no criterion of the latter disease in this class of com-

plaints. The indiscriminate application of leeches for its removal has, to my knowledge, very often aggravated the disease. The counter-irritation of a blister or tartar-emetic plaster is far more effectual, and harmonizes with the true nature of the tenderness—*morbid sensibility* of the gastric and duodenal nerves. In my own person, and those of many others, I clearly ascertained this point, and found that tonics and bitters more effectually relieved this tenderness than leeches and blue pill.

The same may be said of *pain* in the stomach, independent of pressure, of which, by the bye, Dr. Philip takes no notice, in the second stage of indigestion. This is a very common feature of the disease; but affords no criterion of the existence of inflammation. On the contrary, it is far more severe in functional disorder than in unequivocal inflammation of the stomach, and is relieved, as every one knows, by tonics and even stimulants; rather than by leeches or depletion. It is not a little remarkable, that Dr. P. should bring forward pain on strong *pressure* as indicative of inflammation, while he passes over severe pain, which is so very commonly complained of, *independent* of pressure. But the fact is, that neither tenderness nor pain in the stomach of a dyspeptic patient affords any proof of inflammation in that organ.

Of the fulness at the epigastrium I have already spoken, and shewn that it is often more apparent than real, being produced by the emaciation so common in this class of complaints. That it is usually noticeable in indigestion I admit; but that it marks any particular period or stage of the disease I never could discover. It is, I believe, much more frequently the effect of flatus than of organic disease. If the liver be enlarged, so as to cause this fulness, there will then be *hardness* of the part, as well as fulness, and the edge of the organ will be felt through the parietes. The cause will then be unequivocal.

The observations which I have made on tenderness of the epigastrium will equally apply to what Dr. Philip has advanced respecting a peculiar *hardness of the pulse*, as indicating a change in the nature of the disease from irritation to inflammation. The longer a practitioner lives, and the more he sees of disease, the more he will be convinced that the pulse is a "*res fallacissima*" in indigestion as well as in other complaints. On this subject, I must take the liberty of saying, that Dr. Philip appears to have refined to an excessive degree of minuteness. If a physician's whole sense was concentrated in the point of his forefinger, he would hardly be able to follow Dr. Philip in his diagnostic of hardness in a dyspeptic pulse. This hardness is often to be recognized only by "a particular way" of feeling the pulse.



“If the pressure be gradually lessened till it *comes to nothing*, it often happens that a *distinct hardness* of the pulse is felt before the pulse wholly vanishes under the finger, when no hardness can be felt in the usual way of feeling it.” I appeal to the experience of every practitioner, whether such a refinement as the above can be entitled to much confidence in the examination of a phenomenon like the pulse, which varies with almost every emotion or thought that crosses the mind of a dyspeptic invalid. Is it to be assented to, that, by such a criterion as this, we shall be enabled to distinguish irritation from inflammation; or functional from organic disease? The fact is, that in irritation of the stomach or bowels, the pulse is often as hard and as quick as in inflammation of those parts. The heart is so much under the influence of the stomach, in functional derangement of the latter organ, that no dependence can be placed on the state of the pulse, whether as regards hardness, frequency, or irregularity. In general, however, it will be found in dyspepsia, that the pulse is much quicker not only while the food is digesting in the stomach, but during the whole time that chyme is passing along the intestines, than after these processes are finished. The pulse through the day will often be up to nearly 80, and fall, by nine or ten o'clock at night, to 60. Indeed, the dyspeptic invalid is never so well as just before bed-time, when all irritation is removed from the organ of digestion; and this often leads him to take for supper such food and drink as render him miserable all the next forenoon.

In fine, I am compelled to differ from Dr. Philip respecting tenderness of the epigastrium and hardness of the pulse, as pathognomonic signs of a particular change in indigestion, from irritation to inflammation—from functional to incipient organic disease. These symptoms are present in the earliest as well as in the latest stages of indigestion—nor do I believe that there is any regular order or succession of phenomena, in this Protean malady, by which the above-mentioned change can be ascertained. At the same time, I have no doubt that, even in the earliest periods of indigestion, there is occasionally inflammatory action mixed up with irritation, when excesses are committed, or improper stimulants have been exhibited. But on the other hand, I am satisfied, from what I have personally experienced and seen in others, that all the phenomena of what is called the *second stage* of indigestion, including tenderness at the epigastrium and sharpness of the pulse, may, and do very generally, depend on irritation; or, in other words, on functional disorder of the stomach and bowels. No proof to the contrary has ever been given by the scalpel: while the long lives and



frequent recoveries of dyspeptics, after years of suffering afford strong presumptive proofs that no permanent inflammation or organic disease had supervened on disordered function. This doctrine, while it is less disheartening than that of Dr. Philip, is equally prudent in point of practice. It lulls into no false security—for if there be any one maxim in therapeutics which is better established than others, it is that which teaches us to remove (if removable) as well as prevent, disease of structure by correcting disorder of function. If, in examining a case of indigestion, we cannot determine whether or not inflammation or organic change has commenced, (and I have shewn the difficulty, if not the impossibility of this discrimination by the marks which have been laid down by authors) what can we do better than aim at improving the functions of the organs of digestion? Nay, we may go farther; allowing that the tenderness in the epigastrium and hardness of the pulse did offer proof that inflammation or even organic change had commenced, I should be glad to know how we are to remedy the evil but by *withdrawing the causes of all irritation* from the organs themselves, which I shall shew is the fundamental indication in the treatment of mere functional disorder.

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## THE DANGERS ARISING FROM IMAGINARY DISEASES.

### *Sensibility.*

Imagination was given us as the seasoning of life; but, as physical seasoning must not be made our daily nourishment, our mental life, in the like manner, must not abuse this seasoning of the soul. Too much of it will, indeed, exalt vital sensation; but one thereby increases intensive life together with consumption, and prevents restoration, as is proved by the meagreness of such people as have fervid imaginations. Besides, one, by these means, disposes the body to sudden as well as violent revolutions; which may become dangerous to life, because with an overstretched imagination it is possible for a small spark to produce a most dreadful explosion.—He, therefore, who wishes to live long, must never suffer this power of the soul to assume a superiority, or to occasion a continued state of exaltation; he will apply it to that purpose for which it was bestowed upon us, to give a higher lustre to the agreeable moments of life, to season the unfortunate or insipid, and to enliven the melancholy.

This faculty may be highly prejudicial to life, when it acquires certain tendencies, which, by their collateral effects, pro-

duce double mischief; and of these, two appear to me to be particularly dangerous, a propensity to imagine diseases and too great sensibility.

The first disease of the imagination is principally peculiar to hypochondriacs; but may be excited in those who are not physicians, if they read too many works on medicine, which they do not, like professional men, apply to the art, but to their own persons; and who for want of sufficient knowledge, conjecture often very erroneously. Of this I have seen astonishing instances. Not only people who, with features perfectly regular, supposed that their noses stood awry; and who, though slender and sound in every respect, could not get rid of the idea that they were in the last stage of the dropsy, &c. but I have seen a lady who, if asked whether she had not this or the other local disorder, felt in a moment every symptom of it. Having asked her if she had not the headache, she was instantly seized with it; and on asking, in the like manner, respecting the cramp in the arm, and the hiccup, both these affections immediately took place.

Tulpius mentions the instance of a man, who, by reading a great number of medical and chirurgical books, became quite frantic.

Monro saw a man, who, by studying medicine under Boerhaave, had become hypochondriacal. Whenever he attended any of Boerhaave's lectures, he always imagined that he was affected with the disease which had been the subject of it. By these means he was a continual living commentary on the science of physic; but he had scarcely gone half through this destructive course of medicine, when he found himself so wretched and exhausted that he was obliged to give up the study altogether. Nay, we have had the instance of a person who imagined himself to be actually dead, and who, therefore, would have been starved, had not a friend, who pretended to be dead also, persuaded him that it was customary in the other world to eat a sufficient quantity daily.

The misfortune attending this weakness is not only that it occasions constant fear and dread, and that many diseases are actually excited because people suppose they are afflicted with them, but it induces patients to have recourse to useless and preposterous medicines, and to quackery without end, which often consume the body much more rapidly than the disease itself would, did it really exist.

No less dangerous is the second disease of the imagination, sensibility; a romantic turn of mind, melancholy enthusiasm. It is altogether the same whether one really suffers under dis-



tressful events, or, by reading romances and indulging sensibility too much, has made one's self so feelingly alive to every impression as to be overcome by the sensation it occasions. Nay, the latter case is the more prejudicial; as the one is the natural state, but the other artificial; and its affections are, therefore, more violent and stronger. We have already seen how highly destructive melancholy is to the vital power and to every vital movement. One may easily comprehend, then, how baneful such a state must be, which subjects the mind to continual affliction at the hazard of life, and which cannot partake in the more refined pleasures without tears and heart breaking sensations. What extinction of all cheerfulness and courage! Two years spent in such a stage of anguish, would undoubtedly shorten life in a considerable degree.

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#### SHORT HINTS ON PRACTICAL ECONOMY.

Remember that time is money. He that can earn ten shillings a day by his labour, and goes abroad, or sits idle one half of that day, though he spends but sixpence during his diversion or idleness, it ought not to be reckoned the only expence; he hath surely spent or thrown away five shillings besides.

Remember that credit is money. If a man lets money lie in my hands after it is due, he gives me the interest, or as much as I can make of it during that time. This amounts to a considerable sum, if he has good and large credit, and makes good use of it.

Remember that money is of a prolific and generating nature. Money can beget money, and its offspring can beget more, and so on. Five shillings turned, is six shillings; turned again is 7*s.* 3*d.*, and so on till it becomes 100*l.*; the more there is of it, the more it produces ever turning, so that the profits rise quicker and quicker. He that kills a breeding sow, destroys all her offspring to the thousandth generation. He that murders a crown, destroys all it might have produced—even scores of pounds.

Remember that six pounds a year, are but four-pence per day. For this little sum, which may be daily wasted in our expence unperceived, a man of credit may, on his own security, have the constant use and possession of 100*l.* So much in stock briskly turned by an industrious man, produces great advantage.

Remember this saying, "That a good paymaster is master



of another man's purse." He that is known to pay well, that is punctually and exactly to the time he promises, may, at any time, and on any occasion, raise all the money that his friend can spare. This is sometimes of great use. Therefore never keep borrowed money an hour beyond the time you promised, lest a disappointment shut up your friend's purse for ever.

The most trifling actions that affect a man's credit ought to be regarded. The sound of a hammer at five o'clock in the morning, or nine at night, heard by a creditor, makes him easy six months longer.

But if he sees you at a billiard-table, or hears your voice at a tavern, when you should be at work, he sends for his money the next day.

Finer clothes than he or his wife wears, or greater expense in any particular than he affords himself, shocks his pride, and he duns you to humble you. Creditors are a kind of people that have the sharpest ears, as well as the best memories of any in the world. Good-natured creditors (and such one should always choose to deal with) feel pain when they ask for money. Spare them that pain, and they will love you. When you receive a sum of money, divide it equally among them in proportion to your debts.

Don't be ashamed of paying a small sum because you owe a greater. Money, more or less, is always welcome; and your creditor will rather be at the trouble of receiving 10*l.* voluntarily brought him though at ten different times or payments, than be obliged to go ten different times to demand it, before he can receive it in a lump. It shews that you are mindful of what you owe, it makes you appear a careful, as well as an honest man; and that still increases your credit.

Beware of thinking all your own you possess, and of living accordingly. 'Tis a mistake that many people who have credit run into. To prevent this, keep an exact account for some time of both your expenses and income. If you take pains at first to mention particulars, it will have this good effect: You will discover how wonderfully small trifling expences mount up to a large sums; and would discern what would have been, and may for the future, be saved, without occasioning any great inconvenience. In short, the way to wealth, if you desire it, is as plain as the way to market. It depends chiefly on two words, *Industry* and *Frugality*; *i.e.* waste neither your time nor your money, but make the best use of both.

He that gets all he can, and saves all he gets (necessary expenses excepted) will certainly become rich.

If that Being who governs the world, in whom all should look for a blessing on their honest endeavours, doth not in his wise providence otherwise determine.

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#### NEW AND EFFECTUAL CURE FOR RHEUMATISM.

Mons. Dupasquier, has published in the *Revue Medicale*, printed at Paris, an account of a new method of successfully treating rheumatism, he has tried it in several cases and always with success. He says—

With regard to the manner of administering the camphor in rheumatism, it may be given internally or in frictions, or by putting it immediately in contact with the skin, either in powder or vapour; and this last method, uniting the two modes of action of the medicine, is greatly to be preferred. M. Dupasquier has always used it in a vapour only, although he thinks there may be cases where it might be advantageously used internally at the same time. There are circumstances, too, that would indicate general bleeding before using the fumigations. The best mode of applying the fumigations, is by an apparatus invented by M. Rapau, consisting of a particular kind of box. Where patients cannot afford this, however, they may be placed on a chair, over a small furnace, with a large blanket thrown around them, reaching to the ground, and drawn close around the neck: a tea-spoonful of powdered camphor is thrown every five minutes on a metal plate covering the furnace. The medicine rapidly volatilizes, and the parts of the body with which it comes in contact are speedily covered with sweat. The fumigation may be continued three-quarters of an hour, or an hour. When the operation is finished, the patient is wrapped up in the blanket, and put to bed, where he will continue to perspire for some hours. Half an ounce of camphor is usually enough for a fumigation, but it may be carried to a much greater extent without inconvenience: one patient used four ounces at once without any unpleasant accident. When patients cannot be moved out of bed, the bed-clothes may be raised around them, and the camphor volatilized by means of a warming pan moved up and down in the bed. While undergoing fumigation, the patient should drink some mildly diaphoretic drink. The number of fumigations in the day must depend on the violence of the pains, and strength of the patient; when he is strong, and suffering much, they may be used three and four times daily. It is always necessary to continue their use for at least a week after all pain has disappeared.



## ON THE GROWING OF THE NAILS. BY MONS. DUPUYTREN.

This celebrated surgeon gives the following directions for the cure of this disagreeable complaint:—

Take a pair of stout straight scissars, one blade of which has a very sharp point. Push it quickly up the middle of the nail, on its lower surface, as far as its root, and cut the nail into two parts. A stout pair of pincers are to be applied to the anterior points of the nails, and one or both portions are to be turned backwards and separated from its root. If part of the flesh be torn away, the parts are to be cauterized by lunar caustic. This mode of treatment, says the Baron, “is frequently so successful, as to allow the patient to go about his usual affairs in eight days.”

For the *radical* cure of the second kind, the Baron gives the following instructions:—

If the operation is to be performed on the great toe, the surgeon takes it between the thumb and fore finger of the left hand and with a convex bistoury, makes a semilunar incision, having the concavity in front, about four lines posterior to the junction of the soft and horny parts. The nail is now taken by a pair of forceps, and turned back on itself. If necessary, the nail may be previously divided, as in the former case. The object in view, however, is to take away every part that may be likely to reproduce the disease; and as it is absolutely necessary that the incision should be commenced at the distance of four lines behind the root of the nail, care must be taken to commence the incision as laid down: going behind this spot may lead the surgeon into the joint.

After the operation, the wound is covered with a light dressing, and if painful, a cataplasm moistened with laudanum ought to be applied. A little lint should be laid between the toe that has been operated on and the sound toes. If the patient keep quiet, the cure is usually completed in eight days..

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ON ACUTE AND CHRONIC DISEASES.

Mention having been so often made of chronical, and sometimes of acute distempers, it may be convenient here to suggest to the readers as clear an account of their nature and difference as I possibly can. Acute distempers, then, are understood such as within some short limited time have their periods, either of a perfect crisis, and subsequent recovery, or of putting an end to the distemper and life both together; and



are therefore called quick, sharp, or acute distempers, whose symptoms are more violent, their duration shorter, and their periods more quick, either of sudden death, or a glorious victory over the disease. These are generally limited within forty days; and those that run out longer turn into chronical distempers, whose periods are more slow, their symptoms less severe, and their duration longer. They too, (if new fuel were not administered to them) would, by the course of nature, and the animal economy, have their periods, and terminate at the last. The viscidty of the juices, and the flaccidity of the fibres, would, in a great measure, and to some very tolerable degree, by proper remedies, and a due regimen, be removed, and the party recover in these as well as acute cases. But this requiring long time, much care and great caution, unwearied patience and perseverance, and so long a course of self denial as few people will undergo, it is become the reproach of physic and physicians, that acute cases cure themselves (or rather nature cures them) and chronical cases are never cured. But both the branches of the reflexion are equally false. In the first, art and care, judiciously applied, will always alleviate the symptoms, and suffering, will help on nature to the relief she points out, and quicken the crisis, which it will constantly bring about if the distemper is not too strong for the constitution: and even then it will mitigate the pain, and lay the patient gently and easily down. But in the last case, if due care be had, to follow in time the advice of an honest and experienced physician, a period certainly may be brought about to most chronical distempers, where the great viscera are not spoiled and destroyed. The failing is in the patient himself, who will not or cannot, deny himself, for a time, sufficient care to bring about the cure. Some chronical distempers indeed are such, either by having gone too far, or by being hereditary, and interwoven with the principles of life, as never to be totally overcome; and then it is a piece of great wisdom, to know how far their constitution will go, and sit down contented with that measure of health their original frame will admit of. But of this I am certain, if the rules and cautions laid down in various papers be carefully, steadily, and constantly observed, few chronical distempers but will receive such relief and alleviation by them, as to make life tolerably easy, and free from grievous sufferings and, in the mentioned case, that is all that is left for art to do. But in other chronical distempers taken in due time, where the viscera are not quite spoiled, they would infallibly bring about a final period and perfect cure. The most certain distinguishing mark of an acute distemper is, to have a quick pulse: that

of a chronical, to have a slow one. The first will exhaust the fluids, and wear out the solids in a short time ; whereas, the last will require a longer time to produce the same effect. Some chronical distempers, especially towards the last and fatal period, turn acute. And some acute ones terminate in chronical distempers. But this mark will not only keep them distinct : but also point out, when acute distempers have chronical remissions or intermissions, and when chronical distempers have acute fits or paroxysms.

Some persons, who are extremely healthy and sound during their younger days, about, or soon after the meridian of life, (that is, about thirty-five or thirty-six according to the observation of an inspired king) fall into chronical distempers, which cut them off in a few years, or make them miserable all the rest of their lives. Thus consumptions prove mortal to some about that time. Thus stone and gravel, gout and rheumatism, scurvy and dropsy, king's evil and skin-diseases, either make their first appearances, or show themselves in their true type about this time of life. The reason is, while the juices are sweet, sufficiently thin and fluid, but especially while the solid organs, the membranes and fibres, are yet but unfolding, stretching and drawing out to their full dimensions ; any acrimony, sharpness, or corroding humour, can affect them no other way than by making them vibrate, and so extend themselves farther and farther. For as pain, so these sharp salts, by their twitching and irritation on the tender fibres, make them only contract, and so draw at both extremities, and thereby unfold and extend themselves farther. So, while the original foldings and complications of the solids are not yet quite extended, this irritation serves only to draw them out, and does not hurt them, till they are arrived at their full extent, which generally happens about five-and-twenty. It takes a due time after that for these sharp humours to exalt themselves to their utmost acrimony, to corrupt and putrify the juices, and also some more time to wear out, to obstruct, and break the great organs, and their smaller capillary vessels. The sum of all which brings the periods of the great attacks of these distempers to the beforementioned time of life. Those in whom the original taint is deeper and more radicated, and the natural constitution weaker, suffer under these attacks sooner. And those in whom it is slighter and more superficial, and whose complexion is stronger and more hardy, hold out longer. But the generality suffer first, eminently, about the meridian of life. Hence the common observation of those that die of a genuine consumption, that they begin to feel it first before thirty-six.



There is no chronical distemper whatsoever more universal, more obstinate, and more fatal in Britain, than the scurvy, taken in its general extent. Scarce any one chronical distemper but owes its origin to a scorbutic cachexia, or is so complicated with it, that it furnishes its most cruel and most obstinate symptoms. To it we owe all the dropsies that happen after the meridian of life, all diabetes, asthmas, consumptions of several kinds, many sorts of cholics and diarrhœas, some kinds, of gouts and rheumatisms, all palsies, various kinds of ulcers, and, possibly, the cancer itself, and most cutaneous foulnesses, weakly constitutions, and bad digestions, vapours, melancholy, and almost all nervous distempers whatsoever. And what a plentiful source of miseries these last are, the afflicted best can tell. And scarce any one chronical distemper whatsoever, but has some degree of this evil faithfully attending it. The reason why the scurvy is so endemic a distemper, and so fruitful of miseries, is, that it is produced by causes most especially and particular to this island; to wit, the indulging so much in animal food, and strong fermenting liquors, in contemplative studies, and sedentary professions and employments; (and thence the want of due labour and exercise) together with the nitrous moisture of an island, and the inconstancy and inclemency of the seasons thence arising. I have had many occasions to show how such cases must necessarily and naturally produce such effects. I will here only touch the matter slightly, to point out the connexion. Animal foods and strong liquors to excess, and with continuance, must load and charge the fluids with their salts. Want of due exercise must snffer these to unite in clusters, and increase their bulk in the small vessels. Their larger bulk, and great acrimony, thence arising, must increase the viscidty of the fluids, by breaking the blood globules and so coagulating the mass, and at last obstruct the finer pipes and all the smaller glands; whereby the tone of all the elastic fibres must be interrupted and broken, and their vibrations stopt at every obstructed gland and capillary vessel, and an universal disorder produced in the whole animal economy. And this disorder will operate and show itself in symptoms special and particular, according to the special and particular make and conformation of the parts, the weakness or the strength of the organs, the particular mismanagements, and precise state of the air the party lives in. In a word, the scurvy is a kind of catholic distemper here in Britain, arising from constant and general causes, from the customs of the people, and from the nature of the climate, which renders the serous part of the blood too thick and gluey, breaks and divides the union of the



globulous parts, obstructs the small vessels, and destroys the springiness and elasticity of the fibres; so that most chronical distempers can be little else but branches, and coins from this root, which (like Pandora's box) is so fruitful of variety of mischiefs. And its arising from the climate and customs of the people, is the reason why chronical distempers are so frequent in Britain to what they are in warmer climates (which, by a freer perspiration and lighter diet, not only prevent those diseases in their own inhabitants, but universally cure those of our island who are afflicted with them, if they flee to those regions any reasonable time before nature be quite worn out.) For though the inhabitants of Britain live, for the most part, as long, or rather longer than those of warmer climates, yet scarce any one, especially those of the better sort, but becomes crazy, and suffers under some chronical distemper or other, before they arrive at old age.

The same reason is to be assigned for the frequency of self-murders here, in England especially, beyond any other country. For few have grace and resignation enough to suffer patiently the lasting pains of a chronical distemper, or the yet more torturing and crucifying anguish of a perpetual dispiritedness; though I have observed generally, and have good reason to conclude universally, that all self-murderers are first distracted and distempered in their intellectual faculties, notwithstanding the diffusiveness and universality of this disease, so that scarce a single individual of the better sort is altogether free from it; yet I never once in my life saw it totally extirpated in those who had it to any degree, so as to be entirely free from it all the rest of their lives after; but that it still appeared, and sprang up again in some symptom or other, and at last brought forth that grand one, which put a final period to all their sufferings. One good reason for this is, that it requires a regimen and conduct so entirely contrary and opposite to the natural habits and customs, and the universal bent and appetites of the inhabitants of this island, that it becomes a kind of perpetual self-denial to them; which the British nation, in general, does not mightily admire. Another reason is, that fine folks use their physicians as they do their laundresses, send their linen to them to be cleaned, in order only to be dirtied again. Nothing less than a very moderate use of animal food, and that of the kind which abounds least in urinous salts (as most certainly the young and the lighter-coloured do), and a more moderate use of spirituous liquors, due labour and exercise, and a careful guarding against the inconstancy and inclemency of the seasons, can keep this hydra under.

## A COMMON COLD, ITS PREVENTION AND CURE.

A common cold, the parent of so many other disorders, is generally produced in the following manner:—When a person in cold weather goes into the open air, every time he draws in his breath, the cold air passes through his nostrils and wind-pipe into the lungs, and, consequently, diminishes the heat of these parts. As long as the person continues in the cold air, he feels no bad effects from it; but as soon as he returns home, he approaches the fire to warm himself, and very often takes some warm and comfortable drink, to keep out the cold, as it is said. The inevitable consequence is, that he will first perceive a glow within his nostrils and breast, as well as over the whole surface of the body. Soon afterwards a disagreeable dryness and huskiness will be felt in the nostrils and breast. By and by a short, dry, tickling cough comes on. He feels a shivering, which makes him draw nearer to the fire, but all to no purpose; the more he tries to heat himself, the more he becomes chilled. All the mischief is here caused by the violent action of the heat; and the complaints, which are thence produced, might, with more propriety, be called heats, rather than colds.

These complaints may easily be avoided, by adopting the following rules:—

When you come out of a very cold atmosphere, you should not at first go into a room that has a fire in it, or, if you cannot avoid that, you should keep for a considerable time at as great a distance as possible, and, above all, refrain from taking warm or strong liquors when you are cold. This rule is founded upon the same principle as in the case of any part of the body being frost-bitten. If it were brought to the fire, it would soon mortify, whereas, if rubbed with snow, no bad consequences follow from it. Hence, if the following rule was strictly observed, when the whole body, or any part of it is chilled, bring it to its natural feeling and warmth by degrees—the frequent colds we experience in Winter would, in a great measure, be prevented. The application of the flesh-brush to the neck and hands is, with this view, of great use. On the other hand, the practice, after a cold is caught, of making the room the person sits in warmer than usual, increasing the quantity of bed-clothes, wrapping himself up in flannel, and, particularly, drinking a large quantity of barley-water, gruel, or tea, almost boiling hot, by way of diluting, as it is called, and forcing a perspiration—all this will infallibly make the disorder worse, in the same manner as confining inoculated persons in warm-rooms, would make their small-pox more violent.

In regard to the cure of a common cold, it depends on attention to temperature, diet, and medicine.

In the early stages of a catarrh, rather a cold temperature, at least one not exceeding from forty to fifty degrees, is the most likely to be salutary. The covering of the body also, both by day and during the night, should be as light as the external temperature will admit of.

A rigid attention to regimen is not necessary whenever a slight cold occurs; but if it increases, or continues for any length of time, stimulating food is to be avoided, in particular wine and spirituous liquors; the solid food should be light and easy of digestion, and the liquid cooling, as toast and water, or acidulated soda water.

It is the more necessary to attend to these observations, as external cold generally constitutes the chief exciting cause of the epidemic, and other prevailing diseases in Great Britain. At the same time, distempers of great malignity are much greater strangers here, than in most countries on the Continent. The weather is seldom hot or cold in extremes, being so much tempered by sea winds, which fan the whole circumference of the island. The moisture of the British air also, by its tendency to relax the fibres, promotes growth; and the coldness of the temperature, which seldom prevails to any immoderate height, condenses the solids and fluids, and strengthens the whole body. Hence, in some measure, it is, that the natives of Great Britain, in general, are bigger bodied, broader chested\*, and more robust than those of most other countries; and that a greater proportion of the inhabitants of this island, at least on healthful farms and villages, where the people are generally most temperate, and undebauched by spirituous liquors, preserve better health, and live to a greater age, than those of the neighbouring Continent.

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\* The advantage of being broad chested, both for men and other animals, is very great. The size of the lungs depends upon that of the chest, and the quantity of nourishment received by an animal, depends upon the size of the lungs; for, in proportion to those organs, is the quantity of blood conveyed to every part of the animal. As all the blood passes through the lungs in the course of circulation, before it can be conveyed to the different parts of the body, the animal, therefore, can receive no more of this fluid than the capacity of the lungs is capable of transmitting. An animal that has lungs one-tenth part larger than the lungs of another animal, must have one-tenth more blood distributed through the body at each complete circulation, which consequently must make a material difference in the quantity of nourishment with which that animal is supplied. This is the opinion of that respectable surgeon, Mr. Cline, and seems to be confirmed by experience, as the broadest chested men are always the strongest; and in regard to animals, those which have the broadest chests uniformly get the soonest fat, from the greater quantity of nourishment they receive.



The best medicine and the most simple, upon the first appearance of a cold is the following :—

*Draughts for Colds.*

Take of emetic tartar (*antimonium tartarizatum*) four grains;  
of pure cold water, two pints.

Dissolve the emetic tartar in the water by trituration ; of this solution, from a quarter to half a pint may be taken every five or six hours.

Or,

Take solution of acetate of ammonia half an ounce ;  
camphorated mixture, one ounce ;  
solution of tartarized antimony, eighteen drops ;  
syrup of marshmallows, two drachms ;

Mix them as a draught, to be given every four hours.

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ON THE NECESSITY OF BODILY EXERCISE IN THE CURE  
OF NERVOUS DISORDERS. By Dr. REID.

“ To cure the mind’s wrong bias, Spleen,  
Some recommend the bowling-green ;  
Some hilly walks ; all exercise ;  
Fling but a stone, the giant dies.”

GREEN.

Whatever hope the dreams of speculation may suggest, of observing the proportion between nutriment and labour, and keeping the body in a healthy state by supplies exactly suited to its waste, we know that, in effect, the vital powers, unexcited by motion, grow gradually languid ; that as their vigour fails, obstructions are generated, and from obstructions proceed most of those pains which wear us away slowly by periodical tortures, and which, although they sometimes suffer life to be long, condemn it to be useless, chain us down to the couch of misery, and mock us with the hopes of death.

The late Dr. Beddoes remarked, that it is one of the evils of such a climate as ours, that it supplies so strong an inducement to a chamber-life.

A man, it should be considered, may sit and lie, as well as eat and drink to excess. There is a debauchery of inaction as well as of repletion or stimulation. No other abstinence, however salutary, can compensate the mischief that attends upon an abstinence from exercise.

There is not any means better adapted than bodily exercise for the cure, as well as prevention, more particularly of what are called nervous diseases. One of the best moderators of too acute feeling, is labour carried to fatigue. A man suffering under a fit of the vapours, will often find that he is able to walk it off. He can be exonerated from the load upon his mind by

the violent or continued agitation of his body. I knew a delicate and nervous lady who, to counteract the influence of domestic vexation, often used to walk ten miles and back again; and I have heard of an eminently successful manager of the insane, who cured his patients by putting them to hard labour. By making them literally work like horses, he brought them to think and feel again like rational beings.

Of the important effects arising from bodily labour, assisted perhaps by mental excitement, we have a remarkable instance recorded in the "*Monita et Precepta*," of Dr. Mead. "A young student at college became so deeply hypochondriac, as to proclaim himself dead, and ordered the college-bells to be tolled on the occasion of his death. In this he was indulged, but the man employed to execute the task appeared to the student to perform it so imperfectly, that he arose from his bed in a fury of passion to toll the bell for his own departure. When he had finished, he retired to his bed in a state of profuse perspiration, and was from that moment alive and well." It would seem, in such a case, as if the skin having been relaxed by exertion, hypochondriasis evaporated through its pores.

#### *Carriage Exercise.*

Improvements in the mechanism of modern carriages, by which they are made to convey a person from place to place, almost without giving him a sense of motion, may be one of the circumstances that have contributed to the increased prevalence of those maladies, which originate, in a great degree, from an indulgence in lassitude and languor. A man may lose his life not only by a sudden and violent overturn, but by a vehicle which carries him too smoothly along. The notion of taking exercise upon springs of fashionable construction, is scarcely less absurd than that of taking an airing with closed windows. An objection was once made by the physicians, of I do not recollect what reign, to a projected improvement of the pavement of London, as being likely to injure the health of those of its inhabitants who used carriages. Driving a spirited and somewhat unruly horse in a gig, although attended with a certain degree of peril to life or limb, I have more than once prescribed in cases of hypochondriasis, as not only requiring bodily exertion, but as being calculated actively to engage the attention. Almost any remedy that is likely to be successful, is to be recommended in so dreadful and desperate a malady.

#### *Riding on Horseback and Walking.*

Walking is no doubt best adapted to a state of unblemished health or unimpaired vigour; but for the feeble and hypochondriacal, or those who are affected by any visceral obstruction or disease, riding on horseback is for the most part preferable to

any other kind of exercise. Horse-exercise is particularly calculated to remove the obstructions and to brace the relaxed energies of the frame. Sydenham had such confidence in it, that he considered it as an absolute specific for phthisis; and in one of his medical treatises observes, that if any man were possessed of a remedy that would do equal service to the human constitution with riding on horseback twice a day, he would be in possession of the philosopher's stone. I have myself frequently seen instances of broken-up spirits, and apparently ruined constitutions, in which an altogether unexpected restoration to strength and cheerfulness has been effected by horse-exercise, when almost every other method of recovery had been tried without any sensible advantage. To many of my nervous, as well as bilious patients, I have recommended it as almost my sole prescription, to live on horseback.

*Exercise from Field Sports.*

No persons, perhaps, more strikingly illustrate the importance of bodily exercise, than that class of *bons vivans* who combine with a luxurious mode of living amusements which consist in strenuous and almost indefatigable exertions. The sportsman works as hard for pastime as the ordinary day-labourer is obliged to do for bread. The toils of both are equally arduous, and differ only in the one being a matter of choice, and the other of necessity. The unwholesome pleasures of the table are in a manner compensated by the salutary enjoyments of the chase. An evening of noisy and jovial intemperance not unusually crowns a day of equally jovial and noisy activity; and a man will often be found for a long time to escape the dangers of the field, and the still more imminent dangers of the festival. The follower of the hounds is on the road to health, although he may not be in search of it, and if it were not for the excesses which are too frequently connected with his manner of life, it might prove singularly conducive to vigour and longevity. As it is, however, the fox-hunter seldom dies of a broken neck, to which he seems continually liable, but very generally of a broken constitution, to which his habits more inevitably, although less obviously, expose him. He stands out longer, indeed, than the sedentary or indolent debauchee, but yields at length to the destructive power of licentious indulgence, with all the sufferings, although without any of the glory or the merits, of a martyr. Coxe, I think, states in his history of the Bourbons of Spain, that hunting first became there a royal amusement, or at least was more assiduously cultivated as such in consequence of its having been professionally advised as an antidote to the hypochondriasis, to which that august family were constitutionally liable.



There is not a single power of the body or the mind which inaction does not enfeeble or destroy. The lameness of gouty feet, for instance, is often owing to their not having been sufficiently used. It is but a fair retribution that we should be deprived of a faculty, which we have not enough valued or employed. Between the two principal causes of gout, there is a natural alliance. Men are apt to indulge to excess in the luxuries of the table from a deficiency of other occupation, and there is a tendency, on the other hand, in gluttonous indulgence, to induce sluggishness and a disposition to intemperate repose. It is upon exercise, associated with regularity and moderation of living, and not upon any of the artifices or felicities of pharmacutical composition, that the arthritic is to depend principally for a defence against the inroads of his painful and fearful malady. Drugs can assuage for a time the torture, but are insufficient to eradicate its cause. A paroxysm may be abridged by this means, but a tendency to its recurrence, upon the application of any exciting circumstances, cannot be thus effectually and permanently counteracted.

“Tollere nodosam nescit medicina podagram.”

Posture is nearly connected with the subject of bodily exercise. The usual attitude of a person occupied in reading or writing tends to obstruct the passage of the blood through the pulmonary and abdominal vessels. Those therefore who are habitually engaged in this manner ought, as much as possible, to stand to their employment. Standing, as it implies muscular exertion, may be regarded as a species of exercise.

#### *Evils of Boarding Schools.*

Some years ago, I was consulted by a lady with regard to the health of several of her daughters, the complaints of each of whom might be ascribed principally, if not solely, to the confinement, sedentary habits, and other circumstances, which made a part of the austere and inauspicious discipline of a fashionable boarding-school. The representations which they gave could not be doubted, although scarcely credible, of the unwholesome regulations which were enforced in some of these manufactories of infirmity and disease. Instead of mills for grinding old women young, we have, in many of these seminaries, mills for grinding young women old. The natural functions are in such institutions too often sacrificed to the attainment of artificial accomplishments. They treat the human frame as if it were a child's watch; much pains are taken about the polish and gilding of the surface, but scarcely any in preserving the integrity and regular action of the internal machinery; and if it look well on the outside, it is a matter of

little consequence how it goes. Far is the writer from meaning to involve in one unsparing censure all the existing institutions which are dedicated to the early formation of the female character. There are happy, and in number, daily increasing exceptions, where a proportionate and prominent part of the plan of education is made to consist, as it ought, in the cultivation of that physical well-being, which is the basis of every moral and intellectual merit, and therefore of every thing that is truly estimable and permanently desirable in existence. There is no species of speculative knowledge that can compensate a practical ignorance of health.

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DIRECTIONS TO PERSONS GOING TO THE EAST INDIES AS REGARDS HEALTH.

It is well known, that owing to commercial and other motives, numbers of individuals are led to emigrate from this country to warmer regions, in particular to the East or West Indies, many of whom suffer from the voyage, or fall victims to the change, as they rarely know the precautions necessary to preserve their health, in a new and untried situation. To persons advanced in life, such a change is not unfavourable; but to those who are young and healthy, who are full of blood, and who live upon animal food, and fermented liquors, it is frequently fatal, from ignorance how to conduct themselves.

In order to obtain information regarding the means of preserving the health of Europeans in our East Indian settlements, the author applied to some friends, long resident in the East, by whom the following rules have been recommended to the attention of their countrymen:—

1. Attend to the usages of the best informed natives, adapting them to your own habits, as much as European and Oriental customs can assimilate.

2. On landing in India, take some medicine best adapted to the general habit.

3. Rise early, and retire early; taking morning exercise in a carriage, or on horseback, but carefully avoid getting the feet wetted with the morning dew.

4. Every second morning, bathe the whole body with cold water, and follow the native plan, of throwing the water on the head, by means of a small bucket; some, however, prefer the tepid bath of from ninety-two to ninety-seven degrees of Fahrenheit, particularly if little exercise has been taken.

5. Never bathe after having been out, and after having brought on perspiration, either by walking, or any other exer-

cise. In such a case, be content with rubbing the body well with clean towels, and having the feet and sinuosities only of the body washed with cold water; using the wetted corner of a towel for the latter purpose.

6. Breakfast on tea, or coffee, eating rice, or fish, or meat prepared with spices. Curries, or hot grills, will be far from injurious at this meal. It has been justly observed, that the Torrid Zone produces a greater quantity of stimulating herbs than other quarters; as if nature intended them for vivifying the digesting powers, subject to weakened or reduced action, arising from excess of atmospheric warmth.

7. While in motion, have no dread of perspiration, even to excess. Those who unfortunately do not perspire freely, generally soon fall victims to a climate, whose heat almost always produces copious perspiration, even under a state of rest.

8. When under a profuse perspiration, avoid sitting down in cool or cold situations, and, more especially, if exposed to a draught or current of air. Shifting in India four or five times a-day is usual. When strong perspiration has been excited, shift; taking care to rub the body well with clean, and rather coarse towels.

9. Avoid eating and drinking in the course of the forenoon, or between breakfast and dinner. If water, cooled by means of saltpetre, be requisite to allay thirst, let such not be drank when perspiring freely. A settlement remarkable for mortality, became healthy, when the inhabitants abstained totally from drinking sangaree and punch in the forenoon; as these pernicious beverages excited an excess of bile, productive of intermittent fevers and agues, too frequently followed by fatal malignant disorders.

10. At dinner eat and drink freely, and never finish this principal meal without curry—a dish never absent from the table of the natives. Avoid dishes made up with rich sauces of a greasy description, and not relieved by the intermixture of spices. Use the fine vegetables of the country freely. Fruit at first must be taken in very moderate quantities, as an early excess in this respect always lays the foundation of slight disorders of the stomach and intestines, and leads, soon, to a serious affection of the general system.\*

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\* It is for want of proper attention to this point, that ships arriving in India, in a short time, lose a large proportion of their crews; when a pineapple can be purchased for a few pence, and other fine tropical fruits can be had for almost nothing, the poor sailor, long deprived of esculents, and induced by such tempting productions, thinks he cannot consume too much at so cheap a rate; little aware, that this indulgence certainly leads to his destruction.



11. The intense heat of the Oecidental and Oriental climates exhausts the strength and animal spirits, hence wine in moderation may be taken, to stimulate the relaxed and stagnant powers of the system, thus reduced by labour or perspiration. The kind of wine is important. Madeira, or old sherry ought to be preferred. A mixture of wines is improper. Malt liquor is prejudicial, unless where much exercise is taken.

12. An hour's sleep, after dinner, is a vivifying and refreshing indulgence, required by the nature of the climate. If high perspiration has taken place during this rest, it may be necessary to shift, previously to taking an airing in a carriage, or by walking out in the cool of the evening.

13. It is best to abstain from eating at supper any thing beyond a little fruit, and a very small portion of digestible food, as chickens, or cold tongue, &c. &c.

14. Care must be taken not to sleep with open windows, exposed to the pernicious influence of the land winds. The quantity of covering must be light, as perspiration brought on by much elothing, is not salubrious, but quite the reverse.

15. On such mornings as the bath is not used, the feet and angles of the body should be well washed, using a towel-corner wetted in water, to rub with; also, the rest of the body should be washed, previous to an early morning ride.

16. Captains of ships, their officers and passengers, too frequently omit to provide themselves with light clothes calculated for the climate. They land heavily covered, and frequently, malignant fevers are soon brought on, by keeping the system thus oppressed with excess of heat, and perspiration lodged and soured in clothes used again and again, for want of proper changes. Many of the common sailors and soldiers fall vietims to this cause. If a cheap light kind of dress were prepared for them, numberless lives would thus be saved.

17. On getting unavoidably wet, shift instantly, taking care to dry the body well, rubbing it over immediately afterwards, with any sort of spirits, but giving a preference to brandy. Many destructive fevers arise from inattention to this simple preventive.

18. The head, when bared, must never be exposed to a coup de soleil.

19. On being sensible of any unpleasant feel in the mouth, or on expericencing any thing like a shivering lassitude, or any pains in the arms or limbs, a cathartic medicine must be taken, (rhubarb or ealomel,) with the advice of some medieal gentleman. Half the deaths in hot climates arise from early inattention to predisposing causes of mortality.

*Plutarch's System for the Preservation of Health.*

20. Huxham's Tincture of Bark, for bracing the relaxed system, after such a tendency to disorder, is an excellent medicine.

21 After violent exercise, such as tennis or cricket, avoid lying down on the grass, more especially towards evening.

22. Redoubled attention must be bestowed in keeping ships, in hot climates, singularly clean. The hammocks and all the bedding should be well aired and fumigated. The decks below should be occasionally mopped with warm vinegar. Similar precautions are applicable to troops and barracks.

23. Avoid exposure to meridian heat as much as possible; at the same time, when it is absolutely necessary, by due attention and care, no detriment will result from it.

24. Avoid fermented liquors, excepting at meals; and also every mental agitation, calculated to irritate the system.

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PLUTARCH'S SYSTEM FOR THE PRESERVATION OF HEALTH.

A coldness in the extreme parts of the body, which drives the natural heat inwards, shews a tendency to a feverish disposition; we ought, therefore, to guard our limbs well from cold, when we use no motion to throw the heat outwards\*.

Persons in health ought sometimes to taste that simple and insipid food, which alone is proper in time of sickness; so that they may not be disgusted at the sight of it, nor, like froward children, set themselves against it when it becomes necessary. For the same reason, we ought to drink water occasionally at our meals, though we have wine at hand, because in some illnesses it will be proper to drink water only.

It was wisely said by one of the ancients, "Choose that manner of living which is the most conformable to reason, and custom will reconcile you to it."

Thin people are generally the most healthy; we should not, therefore, indulge our appetites with delicacies or high living, (though we have it in our power,) for fear of growing corpulent.

We should beware of such food as may tempt us to eat when we are not hungry, and of such liquors as may entice us to drink when we are not thirsty. Such, it is true, may be used

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\* If this observation of Plutarch was found useful in Greece, it is much more so in our colder climate; and it may be affirmed, that persons, whose legs and feet are for the most part cold, cannot enjoy a good state of health. Woollen stockings should be worn under silk or cotton by people of tender constitutions, to keep up, by their warmth, an equable circulation in the extremities. This would prevent many a fit of pain, sickness and lowness of spirits, which they must feel without such a precaution.

when they become necessary to our nourishment or health ; but we must take great care never to let those delicacies prevail with us to overcharge our stomach. It is absurd for individuals to injure their health, merely for the sake of boasting with what high-priced rarities they were feasted ; whereas, it would be much more to their honour, if they could say, they had such a command of themselves, as to abstain from them.

Those who have a taste for true pleasure should, for the sake of that pleasure, live temperately ; because without temperance there can be no health, and without health, we can relish no enjoyment. What avail the greatest delicacies to a sick stomach ? Is not a good appetite the most exquisite sauce ?

Although great fatigue, heat and cold, have been known to bring on fevers, yet those external causes rarely bring distempers upon such as are temperate and free from any redundancy of humours. It is this redundancy that throws the body into stubborn diseases, just as offensive mud, agitated by external causes, taints the air, and every thing that comes near it.

Though voluptuousness or luxury, carried to an extreme, is considered as a destroyer of true pleasure, yet an over-scrupulous and rigid abstinence, exposes the body to many dangers, lowers the spirits, and disqualifies us for labour or pleasure. A medium should be kept between those two extremes, and, like skilful mariners, we should neither slacken our sails too much in fair weather, nor spread them too wide in a storm.

Whilst we should observe moderation in diet, exercise and pleasure, so likewise our sleep should neither be too long nor too short. Even our dreams are thus rendered natural and easy ; for when we find them absurd and frightful, we have reason to apprehend a fulness, or some bad disposition of the humours of our body. In the same manner, if any sudden causeless fear, or grief, or fretfulness, seizes us, it is more than probable that some malignant vapour, from our distempered bodies, mingles with our spirits, and disorders them.

It would be of great moment towards the preservation of our health, if, when we visit our friends under any illness, we should inquire, without an air of curiosity, or affectation of physical learning, whether fatigue, abstinence, or any surfeit had occasioned their illness, that so we ourselves might learn the necessity of temperance from the experience of others, and take care to avoid those excesses which were the cause of their misfortunes.

It is surprising to think what benefit the sedentary in general, and men of letters in particular, would receive from reading



aloud every day, and to that exercise, therefore, they should make themselves familiar. What going in an easy chariot is, compared to the violent exercise of riding on horseback, the same is reading aloud, compared with dialogue or conversation. The voice moves gently upon the thoughts of another, and glides smoothly along, without that vehemence which generally attends disputations. When violent, such disputations have frequently been the cause of bursting a blood-vessel. This exercise of reading aloud, however, should not be used immediately after repletion or fatigue; for such an error has proved fatal to many.

Idleness and sloth have always been looked upon as the great sources of disease; and the man who thinks to procure health by indolence, is like him, who by continuing always silent, hopes to mend his voice. Besides, the very aim and end of health, which is action, is destroyed by sloth. What is his health good for, who never makes any exertion for his own advantage, or that of his friends?

Some have recommended walking after supper; others, thinking that motion disturbs digestion, believe rest to be preferable. The rational views of both may be obtained, by giving rest indeed to our bodies, but by entertaining our minds with cheerful conversation, which will neither fatigue the spirits through close attention, nor occasion inconveniences of any kind; such as those agreeable and amusing discussions which take place at the entertainments of men of letters.

Temperance in eating and drinking, and in all the other gratifications of our senses, is likewise highly conducive to health. It were better to accustom ourselves from our youth to such temperance as not to require much flesh meat; for it is heavy, and not always very easy to digest. Nature herself seems to have meant that meat should be eaten but moderately, by permitting the earth to yield abundance of wholesome vegetables for nourishment and sustenance, some of which may be eaten as nature has produced them, whilst others may be dressed and made palatable in different ways.

The most noble of all artificial liquors is wine. It is not only a useful drink, and a most palatable medicine, but of all delicacies the most grateful to the stomach. If we should happen, however, to be scorched by heat, fatigued with business, exhausted with intense thinking, or seized with any feverish disorder, a glass of warm water only, or mixed with but little wine, will refresh us more than wine alone, which, having a natural activity and heat, is apt to exasperate our disorder.

It is also necessary to be so well acquainted with our own

constitution, as to know perfectly what agrees or disagrees with us. It is reported of the Emperor Tiberius, that he said it was shameful for any man, past threescore, to reach his hand to a physician to feel his pulse. This was a strong expression; but still it is proper, that a man at sixty should have some knowledge of his own pulse, because there is such a variety in pulses; and should be acquainted with his own temper of body, in regard to heat or cold; but, above all, should have ascertained by experience what agrees with him, and what does not; a knowledge of which is easily acquired by a little attention and care.

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TO PREVENT COSTIVENESS IN THE ERYSIPELATOUS TEMPERAMENT. By Dr. REECE.

Every practitioner of experience and observation, we think, will admit that there is such a state of body as may be termed erysipelatous; a system, from some condition of the blood, or nerves, so predisposed to erysipelatous inflammation, that the slightest injury or irritation will produce a considerable degree of erysipelatous or erythematous inflammation—as the puncture of a leech, the scratch of a pin—and in which a blister, slight excoriation, or even a stimulating plaster, will excite considerable and extensive inflammation. This state of system is attributed by some writers to a preternatural saline state of the blood; and, from the circumstances of the serum of the blood, the urine, the tears, the discharge from the vesicles, and even the mucus from the internal membrane of the windpipe, being highly charged with saline particles, this theory is probably correct.

In such habits, it is of great consequence to guard against costiveness, in order to prevent local mischief; as affections of the lungs, brain, skin, and intestines, to which such subjects are very liable.

The tar, or pitch, both of which are certainly powerful correctors of the erysipelatous habit, may be given in conjunction with an aperient, as the following composition:—

Take of the purified pitch (Stockholm), half a drachm;  
alkaline extract of jalap, one drachm.

Mix well together, and divide into twenty pills; one, two, or three of which may be taken every night or morning, with a tea-cupful of the decoction of marshmallow-root, so as to produce one copious alvine evacuation daily.

The subcarbonate of ammonia, with the Peruvian bark, in the following proportions, has also manifested something like a specific corrector of this habit:—

*Tonic Draught for the Erysipelatous.*

Take of subcarbonate of ammonia, from two to four scruples ;  
infusion of Peruvian bark, eight ounces.

Mix.

The dose of this mixture is from two to three table-spoonfuls three times a day.

During the use of this mixture, it is a common practice to administer four grains of blue pill with two grains of the precipitated sulphuret of antimony every night at bed-time, for about one week. The bowels should be kept in a regular state by the pills of alkaline extract of jalap and pitch.

The late Thomas Cam, Esq. of Hereford, was partial to a solution of the oxymuriate of mercury in antimonial wine, in cases of chronic erysipelatous affections, or for correcting the erysipelatous habit, in the following proportions :—

Take of oxymuriate of mercury, six grains ;  
antimonial wine, one ounce.

Mix.

The dose of this composition is from fifteen to twenty drops, in a wine-glassful of the decoction of the inner rind of elm bark, or a decoction of marshmallow-root.

When the edges of the eyelids are inflamed (a complaint to which erysipelatous subjects are very liable), a little of the following ointment, introduced into the inner corners of the eyes, and rubbed over the eye-lashes at bed-time, generally succeeds in curing it in a few days.

*Ointment for Inflamed and Tender Eye-lids.*

Take of spermaceti ointment, half an ounce ;  
prepared calomel, half a drachm ;  
flowers of zinc, five grains.

Mix.

## ON THE PHYSICAL TREATMENT OF NEW-BORN CHILDREN.

## No. III.—CONTINUED FROM PAGE 221.

*Country Air—its Effects.*

We are certain, that country air is not made the best possible use of by those who inhabit cities ; for no sooner does the warm weather commence, than they leave the city ; and this when the children are in perfect health. In consequence of this, they become accustomed to the air of the country, as well as liable to any epidemic or local influence that may exist there. The object of leaving the city is now defeated ; since it cannot preserve health to those who fly to it for refuge ; and it is found, *cæteris paribus*, as difficult to cure a disease originating



in the country, as in the city—nay, as we have observed above, the patients are sometimes obliged to return to the city to get well.

We are persuaded, those who profit most by the change of air are those who repair to it as a remedy—children who have suffered, or are about to suffer from the heat of our cities, derive immediate as well as permanent advantage from the change—but when taken to the country early in the season, they appear to us to be as liable, or nearly as liable to disease, as if they had remained in the city. Nor is this to be wondered at, they are surrounded by the remote causes, which produce disease in the country; (for no one will deny the country is obnoxious to diseases as well as the city;) as well as liable to exposure to dews, both morning and evening, under the pretence that a walk early in the morning, as well as in the evening, is wholesome; as if wet feet and draggled skirts would not destroy all the advantages of these early and late walks. They are surrounded by the temptation of fruit in all stages of immaturity, which we well know they do not resist; but, on the contrary, they literally cram themselves to surfeit more than once in the four and twenty hours. Need we wonder at their being attacked by disease?

We have every reason to believe, that if proper attention were paid to children during the period of teething; if proper regard were paid to their food; if due pains were bestowed upon their clothing; and if a well regulated system of exercise were established, there would be much less occasion for country excursions for the exclusive benefit of health. We shall attempt to explain these various important topics in the course of our present work, in such manner as will make the putting of them in practice easy to every understanding.

But Rousseau, in his ardour to recommend a country life, becomes, like most speculators upon human conduct, inconsistent with himself. His first great object is, to oblige every mother to suckle her own child; yet he says, they must “send their children to regenerate themselves in the country.” Is it practicable for every mother to retire to the country during the first two or three years of their children’s lives?—to desert their home and family, as her children may present themselves? If they cannot do this, they must, agreeably to this scheme, commit the charge of their children to hirelings; the very thing he so loudly deprecates. Of the same nature is his advice to pregnant women, when he recommends them to lie-in in the country, instead of returning to the city for this purpose. How

few could do this without creating greater evils than it is even intended to cure ! But to return :—

*On Pure and Impure Air.*

The proportions of gases in forming the atmosphere, are as follows : in one hundred parts of atmospheric air, there are of oxygen, 20 parts, nitrogen, 80 parts, 100. These proportions, we are aware, are not rigidly exact ; but they are so nearly so, as to render a mention of their fractions unnecessary, when treating the subject in a general manner.

It must, however, be recollected, when we speak of an impure air or atmosphere, we are not to be supposed to mean strictly a mere diminution of oxygen ; for the air may be filled with such impurities as to render it highly dangerous to be breathed, without its oxygen being diminished in the smallest degree. Thus, marsh miasmata ; the contagious principle of small-pox, measles, &c. may be floating in an atmosphere which may have its oxygen in full proportion. And it must be farther observed, that a full proportion of oxygen does not in the smallest degree prevent the influence of these noxious qualities upon the human constitution. It is therefore necessary to distinguish between an impure air and an irrespirable one ; the one giving rise to disease ; the other preventing respiration.

It may be asked, if this be true, of what advantage is the oxygen of the atmosphere to the human constitution, since it has not a conservative power ? The answer is as easy as it is satisfactory. Experiment has clearly proved—1st, that this substance is absolutely necessary to respiration ; and respiration is essential to life ; 2d, that this gas performs also important offices within the system ; for should the blood not be duly supplied with this fluid, it would be rendered unfit for the purposes of the circulation ; consequently all the functions dependent upon this process must be imperfectly performed, and life itself would soon cease.

But it would be an error to suppose that the more there is of oxygen ; the better for animal life. This is by no means true ; since this gas is so ethereal and stimulating, as to make us live too fast, if too freely indulged in. We can give abundant proof of this, in the air of the Glaciers, which is of the greatest purity, but is rather prejudicial to health. In it we consume too fast, if we may be allowed to retain the figure that respiration is a combustion : and the temperature is also too variable.

Besides, Switzerland, the highest land in Europe, furnishes fewer instances of longevity than Scotland ; and the reasons



are obvious—1st, the atmosphere at all great heights is too dry; for this reason too much moisture is detracted from the body; since its capacity to receive our fluids, and hold them in solution, is in proportion as it may be free from them; 2d, the variableness of temperature, which always obtains in high situations, is extremely prejudicial to the duration of life.

On this account, islands and peninsulas are more favourable to long life than continents. The temperature of the atmosphere is much more certainly preserved on islands than on continents; and the sensible qualities of it have a very decided influence upon animal life. The weight and temperature of the air, and especially the uniformity of these, have a great effect upon the human body. Wherever these are the most uniform, it will be found (*cæteris paribus*) most favourable to old age—hence, we are told that men live longer in the islands of the Archipelago than in the neighbouring countries of Asia; in Cyprus, than in Syria; in Formosa, than in Japan and China; and in England and Denmark, than in Germany.

From what we have said, it would appear that the healthfulness of a place is not to be determined by the purity of the air; or rather by the quantity of oxygen which may enter into its composition; therefore something else is required, as we have already attempted to show; such as position, soil, cultivation, &c. And farther, that oxygen, as before suggested, cannot interrupt the action of various poisons, especially such as may be considered as the remote causes of fever. Yet this fluid is indispensable as a constituent of the air; and though its presence cannot protect against disease, yet its absence is certain death to the animal who is obliged to breathe an atmosphere from which this has been withdrawn or is already consumed.

Hence, great cities are so unfavourable to the extension, or even the continuance of human life. It is calculated that in London, Paris, Vienna, and Berlin, between the twentieth and twenty-third part of the population die annually; while in the surrounding countries, the mortality does not exceed a thirty-fifth or fortieth part. This difference in the mortality of the respective places just mentioned is, however, in a great measure owing to the destruction of too large a portion of oxygen. If the population becomes still more dense, the mortality is still greater; and when many are crowded together, as in ships and prisons, the destruction is yet greater; and if the quantity of air be still more limited; the effects are awful; as was witnessed in the Black Hole of Calcutta, where a hundred and forty-six men were confined in a narrow space for twelve hours, out of whom a hundred and twenty-three died.



It is therefore evident, that no greater mischief can be offered to the human lungs than depriving them of a due supply of oxygen; consequently, the cruel and absurd practice of nurses, of putting a new born child or young children, under the bed-clothes, cannot be too severely reprehended. The consequences of this habit can readily be anticipated, from what has already been said; though it may carry conviction more readily, to explain the changes which constantly take place when the child is so circumstanced. In placing a child under cover in the manner just mentioned, it must necessarily be placed in a space with a limited quantity of air. Of this quantity, it draws into its little lungs, by every inspiration, a certain portion, and returns it again with a loss of a part of the oxygen; the place of the oxygen is supplied by an equal quantity of that noxious or irrespirable gas, called "carbonic acid gas." Another and another quantity is taken in, with precisely similar results, until by the repetition of this process every particle of oxygen is abstracted, and its place is constantly supplied by fixed air, or carbonic acid gas; and this not being respirable, the child dies, unless it be in due time exposed to fresh air.

A more serious objection may be made to the habit many women have of keeping the child at their bosom all night, with its head closely covered with the bed-clothes; the objections just made will operate with equal force in this instance, as in the one this moment considered, with this addition—there is constantly emanating from the surface of every living body a sensible and an insensible perspiration, as well as an extrication of carbonic acid gas. If the body be covered closely, and the escape of this gas prevented, the air surrounding the body thus covered is found unfit for the purposes of respiration. Therefore the child is oftentimes plunged into an atmosphere already rendered impure by the body of the mother or nurse, and consequently, in a short time, has less oxygen than is necessary for the purposes of respiration; and it perishes at its mother's very bosom. We have witnessed four instances of death from this cause\*.

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\* We must here beg leave to differ with Dr. Dewees, conscious that no nourishment the child can receive is equal to that derived from lying in contact with its mother, and receiving from her that warmth and comfort it would be impossible to impart to itself, and which is so essential to its healthy existence. All nature declares the fact—the unfledged nestling is protected and nourished most assiduously by its mother, till it is able to take care of itself; indeed, every animal seems anxious to protect its young from cold; and it is well known that the more careful any animal is of its offspring, the stronger and more rapidly do they grow. We have seen too many instances of infants banished from the bosoms of their mother, sacrificed to promote her comfort, not to decri the practice.—*Editors.*

It will be easily deduced, that every deterioration of the air must be injurious to the child, precisely in the proportion to that deterioration; consequently, the utmost care is required, that no unnecessary process by which the air can be injured should be carried on in the room or nursery in which the child is kept. Hence, the decided impropriety of too crowded a room; of washing, drying, and ironing the things intended for the child's use; permitting the wet or soiled articles taken from the child to remain long in the room; burning of charcoal, or other combustible substances outside the chimney place; cooking of the various articles for meals; the too frequent wetting of the floor; smoking of tobacco; burning of oil with too long a wick, &c. In a word, the nursery should be the purest place, if possible, in the house.

We cannot well condemn too severely the filthy practice in too many nurseries, of drying the wet and soiled articles in the room with the child. If an article must be used a second time after having been once wetted, it should at least be removed from the nursery for the purpose of drying. But a much better practice would be, to consider a well wetted diaper as unfit for re-application until it had been washed. The same may be said of every other article belonging to the child, that has been wetted by its discharges; as its petticoats, sheets, bed, mattress, &c.

The value of a pure atmosphere does not cease at any period of the child's life; it is highly important at all times; though perhaps not so immediately essential as during the first few days of its existence, as it is then less able to bear an impure air than when it becomes older. If the directions we have just given be attended to, many sources of impurity will be removed, yet it will not amount to absolute security. Therefore, frequent ventilation is of much consequence; by this, the great mass of the air is removed, and its place supplied by that of a better quality. In doing this, however, some care is necessary, or the child may receive injury, by either partial streams of air passing over it, or by having applied to it one of too low a temperature.

#### *Of Temperature.*

Children of tender age should never be suddenly subjected to great changes of temperature; whether the change be from a high to a low one, or the reverse; therefore, children born in a cold climate, and in cold weather, cannot safely be placed suddenly in a very cold atmosphere without great and immediate risk. It is true, we may guard their little bodies against the influence of cold so effectually as to receive no injury; but we cannot protect much more important parts with the same secu-



city—for their lungs must receive the cold air within them, and hence the danger.

But the danger just alluded to does not arise so much from the immediate effects of cold air upon these organs, as from the subsequent action of the warm air upon them, and in which they must necessarily sooner or later be placed. Violent re-action soon follows that state of torpor which the cold air imposed on the lungs; and inflammation, cattarrh, or cough, will most certainly be the result.

### *The Cruelty of Exposing Children.*

A sudden attempt to “harden a child,” as it is called, in cold weather, is but another determination to see how much a child can bear, without dying under the experiment. This scheme, founded neither in reason nor experience, has had, to our certain knowledge, too many victims, not to deter parents against the preposterous and dangerous practice.

We would ask, what has given rise to so decided a preference in favour of the system of exposure? This question would be difficult to answer upon rational principles or correct observation. It has proceeded, without doubt, from some general fact relating to the effects of cold; as the general bracing effect of a pretty low temperature upon the body; but without taking into view the various circumstances which were essential to its favourable operation; for instance, with the mercury down to  $10^{\circ}$  of Fahrenheit, let two men (every circumstance being equal but that of clothing) engage in such an atmosphere, at any kind of active employment, for a certain number of hours; the one to be sufficiently clad to prevent, when at rest, any very great inconvenience from the cold; the other, less protected; the latter would require exercise, to prevent suffering. At the expiration of the assigned period, what would be the respective situation of these men? The one would be found to have performed his task without difficulty, or much fatigue; the other would be seen to have performed either less work, or be much more exhausted; for in order to do as much work as the other, he would have to labour much harder, to keep up the same degree of animal heat; or he will have performed much less, and suffered much from the benumbing effects of cold. This is found to be the case also with animals, especially horses. Where then is the advantage of this sudden attempt at bracing with cold? Besides, as regards the human constitution, and especially that of children, it is agreeable to the observations of all medical men, that those children who are properly and sufficiently clad are freer from disease than those erroneously exposed for the purpose of hardening them.



It is undoubtedly true, that those who may have survived the ordeal of Winter exposures, are generally best confirmed in their after health; but this only proves the strength of original constitution, since it stood the severe tests to which it had been exposed; but we are not informed of the fiftyfold failures of the experiment. Let us apply this reasoning to the effects of extreme heat, and see how ill the analogy, though correct, will bear us out; or how few would be willing to have recourse to the trial. It is a matter notorious to every one, that the emigrants to the West India islands, or other hot climates, who survive the "seasoning," enjoy for the most part the best possible health; and perhaps these places will furnish as many instances of longevity, as almost any other parts of the world; but would any one give these instances as proofs of the healthfulness of exposure to a vertical sun, or as a means to acquire long life? Would not any one to whom such a proposition was made, directly declare that the great number of victims, to the few instances of success, are entirely concealed?

It would seem to be a point acknowledged by all writers upon the treatment of children, that extensive and deadly effects are constantly witnessed, arising from variability of climate, and from unnecessary or unavoidable exposure in cold weather. The great increase of acute as well as of chronic affections during the Winter, would seem to confirm this impression. In our mutable climate, the consequences of unavoidable exposure of the children of the poor to all its inclemencies are familiar to the observation of every one who may have felt an interest in the claims of humanity; and so far as we can collect from these observations, the opinion appears to be concurrent, that much suffering, great increase of disease, and an augmented mortality, are the constant results. Let us not then hear any more of the arguments derived from this class of people, in support of the unstable hypothesis, that the health of the children of the poor is a proof of the advantage of exposure to harden the body against cold, or to confirm the system against disease.

We are aware, that instances of the entire success of this plan may be quoted against us; that Mrs. A, B, C, &c. accustomed their children to such exposure; and it will be triumphantly asked, "where can you find finer, or more healthy children?" But we should ask in our turn, can they furnish us with an equally faithful list of those who have died from the experiment? If they could, the argument would not be urged a second time.

The occasional success of a hazardous experiment is very often productive of the most serious evils; it is followed as an

example, when it should have been regarded but as an exception; nor is the error corrected but at the expense oftentimes of many lives. Thus, for the supposed cure of an obstinate disease by an ignorant quack, the patient, grateful for his recovery, attributes to the skill of his attendant, and the virtue of his remedies, what justly belongs to the strength of his own constitution, or the favourable efforts of nature; and if they fail a hundred times in other instances, the disappointments are concealed: for each is ashamed to declare he had reposed confidence in the remedies—therefore, the supposed success is alone heard of.

### *Of the Injurious Effects of Fashion.*

Fashion has also exerted a most baleful influence over the best feelings of the mother, by rendering her willing to sacrifice the health and well-being of her offspring to its shrine, in spite of the remonstrances of reason and of common sense. The preposterous and unsightly exposure of the arms of children cannot be too loudly reprehended, since it has neither convenience nor beauty to recommend it; yet is it attended by the most serious and manifest injury to the unfortunate child. This practice may be perpetuated by an ignorance of its dangerous tendency, and from the desire to give to the body a greater power of resistance to cold. This system of hardening we have in several places condemned, rather from the manner in which it is attempted, than from its impracticability, if properly conducted. In order, however, to render any plan effective, a knowledge of certain anatomical and physiological facts is essential; and we shall accordingly expose them in the best manner we can, as occasion may present itself. But upon no occasion perhaps, shall we have it in our power so satisfactorily to show the injurious effects of cold upon the chest and lungs as in the custom we are now attempting to expose. The cautions suggested by the exposition we shall give will be the more valuable, as they will strike the common sense of every body; and they will be the better appreciated, as the facts are the result of anatomical investigation, and not deductions from preconceived theory.

Portal, in a Memoir inserted in "*La Médecine Éclairée*," p. 335, shows with much clearness the connexion between the lungs and the superior extremities, by means of a great quantity of spongy cellular membrane, which proceeds from the upper parts of these organs; which, after passing under the clavicles and accompanying the axillary vessels and nerves, penetrates the glands of the armpits. The spaces between the scapulæ and the upper ribs are occupied by this tissue; so also is the



space between the great pectoral and dorsal muscles under which it passes, and extends itself to the muscles of the back, and those of the breast. The free and prompt communication between the lungs and upper extremities is proved, M. Portal informs us, by injections. And nature may in part be imitated by the anatomist; for if he inject water into the cellular tissue of the lungs, it will be found to pass from air cell to air cell, until it arrive at the external part of the breast, and under the armpit; from whence it spreads itself to the arms and lateral parts of the chest, by means of the tissue just spoken of. M. Portal declares he has reversed this experiment, by making water or air pass from the arms or armpits to the air cells of the lungs. From these facts the deductions are clear—namely, that whatever does injury to the upper parts of the arms or armpits, will be felt by the lungs, &c.; hence the injury which must necessarily arise from the exposure of these parts to cold, &c.; and hence, in a practical point of view, the importance of remedial means to these parts, in cases of disease of the lungs; and hence, in children born of consumptive parents, the necessity and importance of having these parts sufficiently protected from cold by suitable covering.

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#### ON THE DISEASES OF THE SPINE. BY MR. ABERNETHY.

It is said there is such a thing as a concussion of the spine, the same as a concussion of the brain; a genteel name used to conceal the nature of the injury. But if it be a question, whether there ever was such a shock given as to impair the functions of the spine, I can only say, I believe it is possible. I have seen people jarred very considerably in their spines, and unable to move their lower extremities, and in a great state of nervousness; but who have recovered so quickly and so perfectly, that I believe there was no other injury but jarring. These are very rare cases, however. In general, when a man meets with an injury in his back-bone, depriving him of the use of the parts beneath it, the back is usually broken. But can it be dislocated? That's the question. And the answer to this question must be—it can scarcely be possible that one *vertebra* can be parted from the other, on account of the *articular processes* being fitted as they are. There is one part of the back, however, where a dislocation may take place; that is where the articular processes are very oblique in the neck. A force applied to the head, propelling it forward, and another to the lower part, propelling it backward, may cause such an effect as that, possibly, the articular



processes may slip off one another. But I have examined a great number of those cases, and in every one of which, fracture was found; either fracture of the rim of the vertebræ, or fracture of the articular processes, or fracture of the body of the vertebræ. If a person meets with a blow which occasions an irregularity in the *spinous processes*, and after the accident, the limbs below become paralytic; I say, you may be assured that the vertebræ is broken. And here I have to mention, that the part which projects is in its natural situation; it projects, because the other part has been driven from its natural situation. There was formerly a saying—fractures of the rising end of the bone. Now there is no such thing, except in one case. Wherever one part juts out, that part is in its natural situation, and only juts out from the other part being out of its natural situation. Well, granted; a fracture or a dislocation: What is to be done in such a case? Can you set it, if it be a fracture; or can you reduce it, if it be a dislocation? How? Here are the *viscera* before you. Where can you make the force? dare you pull it? dare you make extension to make it straight? Egad, I don't know what *you* might dare to do, but I should be afraid of it. What, with all the muscles of the back restraining your force! you may jerk the *medulla spinalis* asunder. I do not know that you can do any thing more than keep the parts still; for if you were to suffer the parts to move about, then pain and inflammation would follow, and I have actually seen matter formed in such a case where the parts have been in motion and moveable. I do not know, therefore, that you can do more than keep it still, in the expectation of its healing, but leaving such a defect in the canal for the *medulla spinalis*, as that very probably it would never act properly again. Most of these cases are dangerous cases. I have, however, seen several persons recover; yet they are so generally fatal cases, that I am convinced, an assembly of old surgeons would doubt that there was a possibility of recovery in any case; and yet I have seen many cases of recovery, even where the fractures were in the neck.

I remember a gentleman in that situation, who was paralytic in his arms, and in the whole of his body; but we put the head into a proper situation, kept it steady, and treated the case according to the common principles of surgery, and the patient recovered, and afterwards went about. You may say there was no fracture. I can only tell you that he fell from his horse with his neck under him, and that there was a seeming projection, though not very distinctly felt, as of course it could not be in the vertebræ of the neck; and that he had no use of his arms or legs. I was sent for into the country, a very considerable

distance, to see the case. I put him into such a posture as that his neck was supported, and never permitted him to move from one place. By keeping him confined for a certain time in that way, the bones were knit together; we then got him up, and by stimulating the limbs, and rubbing them, and so on, he came about by degrees. Now I do not know that you can do any thing more in those cases. In the majority of them the depression is so great that the medulla spinalis never recovers. And here I have been in the habit of telling a story of a case of this kind, where I believe the case was properly treated, very properly treated, by a gentleman who was a student at this hospital. He was a wild young fellow, and was riding with another wild young fellow like himself, riding upon Epsom downs at Epsom races; and after they had been riding about for some time, the one said to the other—for God Almighty's sake stop your horse, or you will be dashed into eternity—or some words to that effect; and suiting the words to the action, he pulled in the reins of his horse, for the fact was that he had seen a gravel pit just before him; the other having less fear, instead of stopping his horse, spurred him on, made him leap, and he cleared the pit. The horse however, that had been pulled in, tumbled into the pit, threw his rider, and broke his back. Well, the surgeon returning to his companion, got a shutter upon which he laid him, had him conveyed to an inn in the neighbourhood, and attended him very carefully. And after a confinement of about two months, when it was presumable the broken parts had recovered, and the torn ligaments had been re-united, he was brought to town. The accident was about the middle of the back, about the middle of the *dorsal vertebræ*. There was a projection. It was curious to see this young man, who was very gay and volatile, playing at cards, and entering into conversation with any body who called to see him; but he was living with the upper part of his body, without being conscious that he had the other part of it. And it was proposed, as a question, could any thing be done in this case? and I said I cannot tell you, except taking out the rings of the vertebræ. But that was considered so hard an operation, that it was not at all contemplated, nor does it at all follow that it would have been successful. Yet such a thing has been done, and done in London, at the time too at which the accident happened; at which time I would not undertake it. I would draw a parallel between it, and the fracture of the skull; and I would say, let it alone until all the inflammatory feeling is gone—until you were sure you would have no more inflammation than what would result from the operation itself—I say, I should not be inclined to undertake such an operation, just at



the time at which the accident happened; and it by no means follows that it would be a successful operation, even afterwards: because, it very often happens the medulla spinalis is broken, jammed, and crushed to pieces. Nay, sometimes torn asunder. They are most horrible cases. In some cases, where the injury is of such a nature as that the patient has to lie on his back, the buttocks mortify, and become all over sores. However, the treatment is, to put it as right as you can; and to keep it steady. The first part of the treatment is, to guard against inflammation, and to allow time for the re-union of the parts; then the next object of the treatment is, after allowing time for the repair of the vertebræ as much as possible, what we may call stimulating, rubbing, and electrifying the limbs, to endeavour to give life to them. But they are very, very hopeless cases. There are fractures even of the vertebræ of the neck. There was one case, where the vertebræ of the neck was broken, and it was a curious one: it happened in a child, and no persuasion whatever could induce that child to take away its hands from its head; it held the head steadily, with one hand on each side of it, as if conscious of its injury. The child died, and the vertebræ appeared broken. But I should tell you, that fractures may take place there, which is the most important part, and yet the patient may recover.

#### *Distortion of the Vertebral Column.*

These are not diseases, they are deformities. It is customary to attribute them as arising from the same state of health which rickets arise from; but I don't think that that is a fair way of viewing the subject. I call upon you to observe what slight things will produce a deviation from the proper direction of the vertebral column. You never saw any one who had a complaint in the hip who was not distorted in the back. The standing upon one leg will occasion a distortion in the back; I cannot stand upon my left leg, for instance, upon any other terms than those of inclining to the right; and if I am to continue in this posture, such is the constructure of the intervertebral substance, as to occasion a springing out, and augmenting of bulk on the one side; so that this is a cause rendering a temporary distortion, and in continuing to recline in that way, the distortion becomes permanent. Now, therefore, the habit of standing on one leg will occasion young people to grow awry. If I were to lean over, as it were, upon my right shoulder, what would be the consequence? Why, to balance the weight of my body, I must twist my spine, and incline the loins to the left side, and therefore cause a deviation to the left side. Now, suppose a curvature to take place, and that that curvature was on the right side,



if the weight were put on it; is it possible that the head could be supported in a straight line from the *pelvis*? It is not possible; and the first curvature induces another curvature, and the next another, and so they go on, and they are all consequences of one original curve. Now, I say, it is very curious to attend to what slight causes will sometimes lead to the original curve, and causes which we do not easily perceive.

*Case of a Young Girl.*

I have been in the habit of telling a case, when lecturing on this subject, that occurred in my own family: a child young and active—and I don't see those curvatures happening except where there is some constitutional disorder—I say, a girl of this kind became awry; I saw the child when I had an opportunity, and I observed that she had got one shoulder-strap very often down, which she was continually pulling up, and I said to her mother, "If you allow that to go on, that shoulder will become warped, as sure as you're alive. Let the gown be made in another way, and don't let her always be twisting herself to keep up that shoulder-strap." The mother said, "O, don't take any notice of it; and let it pass on for a time." Then I began to swear about the fashions, that had been the cause of those shoulder-straps being made in such a way. But, in the course of a month, the reason appeared why the shoulder-strap did not stop on that shoulder; it appeared that that shoulder had sunk down about an inch lower than the other. I then told her to walk before me, and then to stop, and I observed her particularly, and I found that she was in the habit of standing and resting always on one leg. I then began to ask her if there were any sores about her feet, any sores about her toes, any pains in her leg, or any thing wrong with it, and she said no. I said, "I should like to see you hop; hop round the room, and then stand;" she did it, and did it very well. "Now," said I, "hop round the room on the other leg;" she attempted it, and she took a few hops, and then she was obliged to walk, because that leg was not capable of supporting her. She had been clearly in the habit of standing on the one leg, and by having disused the other it became a weak limb. Now, by setting her frequently to hop round the room on the weak leg, very frequently, until she could hop on it as well as on the other, both shoulders became of the same height, and the shoulder strap of her gown never slipped off again. But I am quite sure she would have been awry, if she had not lived in a surgeon's house.

*Method of treating Curvatures from Habit.*

Now, you will say, what's the use of bothering us about these

things, they are not diseases? No; it is very true, they are not diseases; but I can tell you that they are very important, and that you will be more bothered about them than about any thing else you may meet with. O, there are young ladies, whose parents would give any thing to have them set straight. Now I tell parents that I have any concern with, that they must avoid all the causes which have produced the original curvature. I try to suggest what those curvatures are, and then I tell them that they are to lie down as much as possible, and to take the weight off the pillar which has yielded, because if the column has yielded, whatever weight is placed upon it will considerably increase the curve. I hear medical men say, you had better put weights on your head and carry them about with you, because, say they, people who carry large weights on their heads or shoulders, such as milk-pails, have straight backs. But I say, weight on the head must be very injurious, therefore I tell them to lie down, to avoid the causes which increase it, and to lie in a horizontal way, and many say you should lie in a manner so as to extend the vertebral column. That can never be done. Lie down, therefore, in a horizontal way, and you take off the weight from the curve. But I would by no means deprive the patient from taking that degree of active exercise which is conducive to health, because I say there is something wrong about those patients; there is something about them that induces muscular rancour, or muscular irritability. It is an object to give all possible energy to their muscles; it is an object, therefore, that they should have active exercise, and an object to give them all possible strength, that they may have the power of supporting the head and weight. Then, I say lie down. But people will ask me, "Can't you do any thing more Sir? and I must say, "No, I don't know that I can, unless you choose to be gibbeted. That is sometimes done; it is a fashionable way of going to work, and is what I call gibbeting. This was first proposed by Mr. Vacher, and the plan is that of taking the weight of the body from the pillar that supports it. A most horrible annoyance it is to the patient. O, the pressure against the chin, and the under part of the jaw is dreadful; it produces a thickening and ulcerations of the ligament, where it is carried on, as according to principle it ought to be. Now there is a gentleman, Mr. Cheshire, of Hineckley, in Leicestershire, I think it is, who perhaps understands the principle on which those machines should be constructed better than any body else; yet I have seen patients who have been there, and really there has been no such good done to them as I should boast of; but he certainly does support the principle, and that principle supports the weight of the body, but greatly



to the annoyance of the patient, and productive of the effects I have been describing, occasioning abscesses and deformities, and thickenings, and so on; but he does it effectually; and the effect too of taking the weight from the proper place is, that by using those machines for years, which they have to do, they cannot afterwards do without them; they lose the power of their muscles, so that they cannot do without them; and therefore, if they lay them aside they have to lie until they recover the power of their muscles, until they can properly support their weight. But I cannot say I like this system at all, therefore I don't give my mind to it, but I advise all my patients to avoid all causes which might affect the original curvatures; to take off the weight by lying down, and so on; but the child should not lie down in any constrained attitude. In a boarding-school, you will see the mistresses of the school having all the girls lying like a file of soldiers, on boards turned horizontally, and there they lie for about half an hour; that's a short time, but they can do nothing when they are lying in that position, like corpses. Now I maintain that they may do this on a rug, or carpet; and I say, why can't your child lie down in that way, which is the ancient fashion; but, to be sure, the other is the more modern. But I know that weight on the upper parts of the body must tend greatly to increase the curves: I know also that people will become straight if the cause of the curves is removed; because I have found it to be so in the cases of distortion of the vertebræ from wry-necks, as well as in other cases, by such treatment as I have been endeavouring to explain to you.

I remember that Mr. Hunter used to say a great deal on this subject in his lectures. He used to say he was convinced that people got awry, by the endeavours of parents to keep them straight. That parents were continually watching their children and making them sit in a particular attitude; and that those children, so watched, when unobserved, would naturally sink into another way of sitting, to have a little ease. Besides, that is keeping in action one set of muscles, and not allowing the other to act at all; whereas, every set of muscles should be kept in action. He said, you don't see boys grow awry, any thing like so often as girls, nor yet girls in a low situation of life. I remember when there were *stays* to prevent this wryness; and stays, you know, are good things to let a person slip aside, without that slipping being seen; and that went so far, that I remember the time when it was a *bet*, that upon an examination, in an assembly of well brought up girls, you would not find one girl among them straight, but that they had all a crick in the



hip, or a slip in some part or other. I remember Mr. Hunter saying, you should dress your children lightly and loosely, let them run about and exercise all their muscles equally, and then they will not grow awry. To this parents have a sort of objection, which is, that children will become round shouldered, and so on. Now, I have even endeavoured to refute that absurdity, by saying, if children were allowed and suffered to do as they pleased, the body would be formed according to that pattern which Nature designed it should be. If two round shouldered parents had a child with a perfectly flat back, I should really suspect its legitimacy; and one might wonder people had not hit on a plan for making Roman noses for children. One cannot counteract Nature. If the body be healthy, it will be well formed; but it will grow according to Nature. But, said Mr. Hunter, if it be necessary, from fashion, and so on, to carry the person in any particular manner, this habit may be obtained at any period of life; and quoting this instance: you see a plough-boy, while plodding away at the plough, an awkward fellow; but he enlists; then he is put under drill of a serjeant: and then observe with what care and precision he marches, after he has been under that serjeant for a time? Now that shows that if the body is well formed it may carry any fashion. But there is certainly no counteracting Nature.

These are not diseases, but deformities; and yet points of great importance. In some of the cases, there is no room for the lungs on one side of the chest. It is this which first attracts people's attention; Sir, I want to consult you on my daughter's case; her shoulder is growing out, or her breast is on one side. O, the cause is in the distortion of the vertebral column; and that they cannot believe; but that you will find to be universally the fact, I believe.

Now I go to speak of curvatures from disease:—curvatures produced by a diseased state of the vertebræ. The bodies of the vertebræ are of a spongy substance; the ends of the bones are also spongy, and *scrofula* may arise. And a curvature of the back produced from a bend forward, and where many of the vertebræ are gone, then one of the vertebræ sticks out, and makes a very acute angle; and this angle, this sharp projection, is one cause of a surgeon's knowing the nature of the disease. Now; in the commencement of the disease, the question is, whether it begins in the bone, or in the intervertebral substance? Now, I really cannot tell; sometimes it is in the one, and sometimes in all probability; in the other. It is very rare that we have an opportunity of examining it at an early period; but when *scrofula* begins, the disease goes on to ulceration, and the

bodies of the vertebræ are crushed by weight. It's right to tell you, too, that you may have the disease without eurvature, and you may have curvature without the disease.

Now as to the treatment—unquestionably you must keep the patient still; motion of diseased parts is always exceedingly injurious; the greatest good is done by keeping diseased parts in an absolutely confined state. Ease is not only good in counteracting the morbid action of the diseased bone, but in counteracting the disordered action of the medulla spinalis itself, which is the cause of the disorder; and I believe I need not enlarge upon this, because it is obvious to common sense, that ease is likely to be of efficient good. But in all scrofulous diseases, a great deal depends upon the management of the patient's health; the correcting that state of health which gives rise to scrofulous actions, must be considered a most important part of the treatment.

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#### ON THE TREATMENT OF COSTIVENESS IN THE NERVOUS.

The class of remedies capable of allaying nervous irritation, or diminishing morbid susceptibility or sensibility of nerves, and for strengthening the nervous system (termed nervines) is very extensive, embracing nearly all the articles of the materia medica: denominated narcotics, anodynes, sedatives, hypnotics, soporifics, antispasmodics, stimulants, tonics, &c. &c. Many routine physicians prescribe tonic medicines and a generous diet in cases of general nervous excitability; under the idea that it is dependent on weakness; but the robust as well as the weak are its victims, and the general and local remedies which succeed in tranquillizing the nervous system in the former, will disturb or irritate it in the latter. The irritability of the body is a property confined to or inherent in muscles, and probably also in membranes, whilst sensibility is dependent on nerves only; and between these two properties there is evidently a peculiar harmony or reciprocity of action, so that when the equilibrium is destroyed or interrupted, the nervous system becomes preternaturally susceptible of impressions. The effect of the east and north-east wind, which is very remarkable on some nervous subjects, may perhaps be attributed to an electrical influence in interrupting the harmony between the museular and nervous systems; for certain it is, neither the temperature, the density, nor humidity of the air, at the time, has any thing to do with its baneful operation. Some nervous subjects are even sensible of the air having shifted from a friendly to an unfriendly quarter, during the time they are warm in bed, and in a room in which the external air could scarcely find admittance, the windows and doors being well secured against its ingress.



*Hysterical and Epileptic Nervous Invalids*  
 are very subject to a peculiar headache, accompanied with considerable diminution of temperature in the extremities, and frequently in the bowels, some hours, and sometimes days, before a paroxysm, which we have often heard an invalid attribute to an accumulation of nervous energy in the brain, and others to the suspension of the action of the nerves in the extremities; and in such cases, a paroxysm generally succeeds in removing the affection of the head, and restoring the limbs to their natural state of temperature and vigour, probably by re-establishing the harmony between the nervous and muscular systems. After this convulsive action has run its course, certain it is, both the systems (nervous and muscular) become tranquil.

The treatment of the nervous habit, like the other temperaments, must be regulated by the state of the general health. If the sanguiferous system be overloaded, and the patient of a robust habit, the best nervous remedies will be aperient medicines and bleeding, with a low diet; on the contrary, if the patient be of a low, spare habit, and the pulse low, cordials, and a generous diet will generally succeed in subduing the excessive susceptibility or general irritation of the nervous system. There is, however, a class of nervous medicines, which act directly in subduing nervous excitability or sensibility, termed narcotics, anodynes, soporifics, and hypnotics, as the laurel, deadly nightshade, poppy, henbane, hemlock, aconite, lettuce, &c. Some theorists, observing the system to become excited after taking any of this class of medicine, have attributed its quieting effects to a peculiar stimulating action on the nervous system, which speedily exhaust its powers; but all the medicines of this class are poisons, and the excitement which takes place is probably the alarm of that power, which we think every practitioner of experience and observation will allow to exist in the system, termed the conservative power (*vis conservatrix*), because when a solution of opium, or extract of deadly nightshade, is applied to an irritative ulcer, or to nerves of the skin in a state of morbid excitement, it immediately acts in allaying the local irritation; and when administered in a sufficient quantity to paralyse, as it were, the conservative power, it immediately acts as a sedative. In some nervous subjects, the conservative power is so much roused by an opiate, that instead of tranquillizing the nervous system, or of procuring sleep, it has greatly increased the excitement, so as to prevent it; and this effect is very common when the complaint borders on mania; and even when an opiate succeeds in quieting the system, and in inducing sleep, the patient is very apt to become most distressingly nervous after its effects have gone off. This class of medicine is-



therefore very rarely employed to quiet or subdue the state of the cerebral system, which constitutes the nervous temperament. There is a class of medicines which is also termed by ancient and modern authors nervines, for the effects of which it is difficult to account, unless, like the advertised nervous cordials of quacks, the prescriptions of some fashionable physicians, or amulets, charms, and incantations, which are still employed in Catholic countries, they act through the medium of the imagination, which has great influence on the brain and nerves of superstitious and weak invalids. This class, which, with the ancients, was very numerous, has been very considerably abridged by the moderns, at least in this country; and these few are only prescribed by the blind sticklers for the monkish medicine of Warwick Lane, as the castor, musk, viper wine, &c. Pulverised human skull, the relics of saints, and dried toads (great favourites with the ancient physicians), were not abandoned till the pompous impostors were compelled, by general ridicule, to relinquish the cane and wig. Another class of nervous medicines, still in great repute in this country, operate beneficially in allaying nervous excitement, or general nervous irritation. The stomach being, as we have observed, the centre of sympathy, it is probable these mild stimulants succeed in quieting the nervous system of weakly invalids, by harmonizing, as it were, the viscera or organs of the belly, and even of the chest and pelvis, which effect is extended to the nervous and muscular systems. The principal articles of this class of medicines are ammonia, subcarbonate of ammonia, compound spirit of ammonia, (spirit of sal volatile,) the nitric and sulphuric ethers, valerian, the fetid gums, preparations of iron, &c.

No medicines act more efficaciously in maintaining the reciprocity of action between the muscular and the nervous systems, or the harmonious sympathy between the various organs, than those which keep up the important processes of chylification and fæcification, and prevent accumulation of fæces and gas in the alimentary canal.

The fact of constipation being a forerunner of a variety of nervous affections, as headache, epilepsy, hysteric fits, St. Vitus's dance, asthma, palpitation of the heart, and even indigestion and coldness of the extremities, forcibly points out the necessity of attending to the state of the bowels. For the purpose of keeping up the peristaltic motion, rhubarb is a favourite remedy with many physicians, because, as they say, it is both stomachic and aperient; but there are two great objections to it—viz. its tending to increase the disposition of the intestines to constipation, and its continued use (like that of other sto-

machies) acting injuriously on the stomach. Such an aperient medicine should be employed that will not disorder the stomach or duodenum, but promote the secretion of the colon, and diminish the determination of the blood to the brain (a common cause of general nervous disturbance); by increasing it in the lower intestines, and consequently in the extremities. For this purpose the following will be found beneficial.

*Pills for Costiveness occasioning Headache, &c.*

Take of extract of socotrine aloes, half a drachm ;  
 alkaline extract of jalap, one drachm ;  
 essential oil of juniper berries, ten drops ;

Mix well together, and divide into twenty pills. One, two, or three of these pills to be taken every day, about two hours before dinner, so as to produce one fæcal evacuation.

If this composition should not prove sufficiently strong to conquer the disposition to costiveness, half a drachm of scammony, or a scruple of gamboge, may be added to it, and the mass divided into twenty-six pills. If this should not succeed, it will be more advisable to employ a lavement of warm water, or a weak solution of the Epsom salt in thin gruel (about six drachms to a pint), than to increase the dose, or to exhibit a more powerful medicine. If the patient be subject to piles, or irritation in the rectum, bladder, or uræthra, the extract of aloes should be omitted. The addition of a diuretic to an aperient medicine, considerably promotes its efficacy in harmonizing the abdominal nerves, by bringing the kidneys and absorbent system into action. To the use of the saline aperients, as Glauber's salt, the Epsom salt, the Cheltenham salt, the Seidlitz salt, &c., there is the same objection as in cases of headache from plenitude. By diminishing the temperature of the stomach and bowels, they occasion a determination of blood to the head, and by disordering the stomach and bowels, increasing flatulence, &c., many nervous and other complaints, as epileptic, hysterical, and apoplectic fits, St. Vitus's dance, asthma, &c., have been brought into use.

There is a variety of indigestion common in this country, from nervousness of the viscera, &c. of the belly (probably from a disordered condition of the ganglions, brought on by severe mental distress), in which the buchu leaves have proved singularly beneficial. In this variety, although the presence of gas and acidity shews that the stomach does not perform its office, the appetite is generally good: The fæcal secretion is very irregular, and intestines easily disordered by an aperient medicine; ripe fruit often occasioning purging. The belly is



often almost suddenly distended, without any evident accumulation of gas, or fæces; and there is frequently a sensation of distention when the bowels are soft, which is generally removed by eating or drinking. The urine varies much in colour even in the course of a day, being sometimes pale, and at others of a dark red appearance, and after standing is covered with a film, and deposits a sediment. The fæces are for the most part of a proper colour, but when soft and frequent, emit an offensive odour. There are often flying pains in the lower extremities, particularly in the calves and the feet, on taking exercise, and also cramp, on being kept for a few hours in one position, or on riding on horseback. The patient is much disposed to drowsiness and to dreaming, and to talk or mutter during sleep, but his mind is far from being hypochondriacal, being in general so regardless of his health, as to indulge in articles of diet, which he knows will disorder his bowels. His mind is generally very irascible, and his feelings very acute. In females this complaint is attended with the peculiar croaking, or grumbling noise in the bowels, technically termed borborygmus; and physicians, supposing it to be hysterical, generally prescribe the remedies which have obtained the reputation of allaying nervous irritation, in consequence of exciting disgust in the mind, as assafœtida, valerian, galbanum, &c.; and stimulants, as Peruvian balsam, sal volatile, ginger, &c. which afford temporary relief by exciting the nerves of the internal membrane of the alimentary canal.

In this species of indigestion, the buchu leaves have proved very beneficial, and experience has satisfied us, that they are more efficacious in invigorating the nervous system, and allaying irritation or irritability, than any article of the *materia medica*. This remedy may be administered in cases of nervous indigestion, nervous headache, tremors, palsy, chronic rheumatism, nausea attendant on pregnancy, and atonic gout, combined with other articles, as the following:—

Take of infusion of buchu leaves, half a pint;  
tincture of columbo, four drachms.—Mix.

If the patient be subject to depression of spirits, three drachms of the compound spirit of ammonia may be added; or if acidity should prevail in the stomach, to the degree as to occasion the sensation termed heartburn, three drachms of the carbonate of soda. In cases of fluor albus, an ounce of the compound tincture of rhatany root may be substituted for the tincture of columbo.



OF THE STATE OF THE BRAIN DURING SLEEP. By Dr.  
CLUTTERBUCK.

The sensorial or proper functions of the brain, have this peculiarity, in comparison with others, that they are subject to be suspended periodically; and for the most part once at the least in every twenty-four hours. This suspension is termed sleep, a state which is subject to great irregularity, both as to the time of its occurrence, and its duration. Sleep may be more or less perfect. Instead of a suspension of all the sensorial functions, one or more may remain in an active state; as we see in regard to the mind, in dreaming. Sometimes the muscular power, and even the external senses, are awake; as in cases of somnambulism or sleep-walking.

This periodical suspension of the sensorial functions, it may be presumed, has an influence on the diseases of the brain, and may be one cause at least of their periodical tendency, a tendency which is more remarkable in brain-affections than in others. It may serve also to account, in some degree, for the exacerbations of fever, and even for their intermitting character, as often observed, though it must be confessed there would be difficulty in accounting in this way for the different types, as the tertian and quartan; and also for the different hours of attack, which are observed often to take place, and that with much regularity, at different times of the day.

With respect to the physical condition of the brain in sleep, as compared with the waking state, many different notions have been entertained. It may be worth while to mention a few of these.

Haller ascribes sleep to the absenee, deficiency, or immobility of the animal spirits; or to compression of the nerves at their origin in the brain; and, in all cases, to the motion of the animal spirits through the brain being impeded; this impeded motion, he considers to be frequently owing to sanguineous congestion.

Dr. Cullen refers sleep to collapse of the brain; by which he understands, a state of diminished mobility of the nervous fluid; while Brown and Darwin suppose it to depend upon the exhaustion of the principle of excitability, as the consequence of the exertions taking place in the waking state, and which is re-accumulated by sleep.

Blumenbaech again refers sleep to a diminished afflux of blood to the brain. Richerand's opinion is not very different from this; he thinks the circumstances denote a diminished circulation in the brain, from less blood being carried to it, and that the brain in consequence falls into a state of collapse. Bichât

simply refers it to an ultimate law of nature; which is, in fact, no explanation at all.

Some of the opinions now stated are purely hypothetical, and rest upon no ascertained fact. Such are the notions of collapse of the brain, and diminished mobility of the nervous fluid, or animal spirits. The theory of exhausted excitability, is negatived by the circumstances; for sleep bears no proportion, or but little, to the degree of excitement or exertion that takes place during the day. Without mentioning further objections, I shall offer what appears to me the most probable solution of the problem; though in some points it may be little more than conjectural.

That the states of sleep and waking are to be referred to the brain, and that exclusively, appears from different circumstances. Sleep is a cessation of the proper functions of this organ, and which does not materially affect other parts. It is produced by causes, some of which act immediately upon the brain; such as direct pressure, either external or internal. These are sufficient to warrant us in considering the brain as the seat of sleep, if one may so speak.

There appears reason to believe, that sleep is occasioned by impeded circulation in the brain, that is, in those parts of the organ which are devoted to the sensorial functions. This, I think, will appear from a consideration of the causes that are found to induce or favour the approach of sleep, as well as those which tend to prevent it.

In the first place, direct pressure upon the brain, whether produced by external or internal causes, suspends the sensorial functions, or, in other words, induces sleep; and it is evident that this cause must have the effect of compressing more or less the blood-vessels of the brain, so as to impede proportionally the circulation.

Secondly, the recumbent posture, and still more a depression of the head below the level of the body. This impedes the return of blood from the head, and so far must retard the circulation in the brain.

These causes operate directly in inducing sleep; but there are others, which produce their effect in an indirect way, though they ultimately produce the same result, of retarded circulation in the brain. No one doubts, I believe, that a moderate exercise of the sensorial functions, whether it be muscular exertion, agreeable sensations, or mental employment, is attended at first with an increase of vascular action in the brain; or that the continuance of such exertion leads naturally to the opposite, that is, diminished action; just as exercise is followed by

fatigue. And I need not observe, that such a moderate exercise of the faculties, continued for a certain time, favours the approach of sleep.

#### ON THE TREATMENT OF THE TEETH AND GUMS.

Negligence in the care of the teeth and gums is frequently rewarded by most excruciating pains in those useful and ornamental appendages of the human form. Their utility in masticating our food, thereby properly preparing it for the stomach, one would imagine, would not fail to insure strict attention; while their beauty, when in a perfect state, ought to guarantee the utmost care in their management; as a fine set of teeth is considered indispensable to complete a handsome countenance. It becomes every person then to endeavour, both on the score of health and comfort, as well as a preservation of personal appearance, to keep up a constant attention to the teeth, which is but too often, we fear, neglected. We shall endeavour to shew in what manner the teeth may be injured, and the best means of repairing or avoiding the misfortune. And first, of

##### *The Enamel.*

This is the external part of the teeth, which is, in general, about one-tenth part of an inch thick, and still thinner on the sides. This polished and shining body, whose colour varies from a bluish to a yellowish white, is much harder than ivory. It is susceptible of being injured from various causes, either external or internal, which may produce the loss of the tooth. The internal causes may arise from various circumstances, occurring at the time of the second dentition. Our present business is more immediately with the former of these, the

##### *External Causes of the Decay of the Teeth.*

The nervous feeling of *setting the teeth on edge*, as it is called, would almost seem to prove that the enamel is in some degree possessed of vital action, though the general opinion of authors is against this proposition. Be that as it may, it is certain that acids will soften, split, and even dissolve the enamel, which is frequently the case with persons of an otherwise healthy temperament, arising from a too free use of acids, either in their drink, or as elixirs for cleaning the teeth. The remains of the food which settles between the teeth, and corrodes the enamel, occasioned by a want of care in washing the mouth after each meal, is a fruitful source of decay of the teeth. To these may be added the effects of blows, falls, cracking nuts, and biting hard substances. Situation has likewise some share in producing bad teeth; for it is generally remarked, that the inhabitants of marshy, cold, and damp countries seldom have fine



teeth. The habit of smoking or chewing tobacco, is also detrimental to the teeth, and produces a most unpleasant appearance.

*Accumulation of Fur or Tartar.*

This concretion, which is originally soft and pulpous, is constantly secreted by the saliva during sleep, and becomes by degrees thick, and more or less of a yellowish brown, or black colour, and occasionally very hard. Though tartar adheres more particularly to the teeth of debilitated individuals, whose powers of stomach are disordered, or who are of a relaxed habit; it is also attendant upon those whose saliva is abundant and viscous, whose gums are pale, soft, and frequently bleeding. With them the formation of the fur is copious and rapid. The concretion at first gathers by degrees in the spaces between the teeth, especially behind the lower incisors, where the saliva is most likely to lodge. It soon forms, if not removed by constant attention, a hard mastic, which rapidly encircles the teeth in a scaly adhesive covering, destroys the flesh of the gums, loosens the teeth, and puts them out of their place. Deep holes in the teeth or gums frequently ensue, and not unfrequently, in a habit predisposed to breakings out, fistulas, and purulent ulcerations of an insupportable fetidity are the consequence.

It is at an early period of the accumulation of the tartar that the utmost attention is required to prevent its formation or increase. Upon the first appearance of tartar upon the teeth, we advise the following

*Cleanser for the Teeth.*

Take white magnesia carbonated, two drachms;  
pumice stone, fine carmine, fine sugar,  
of each one drachm.—Mix.

Or,

Take red coral, acidulated tartarized potash,  
(cremor tartar) of each two drachms;  
dragon's blood, orange peel, fine carmine,  
of each one drachm.—Mix.

These powders are equally good to keep the teeth in proper order, if regularly used, though the first being less acid, will more properly apply to children and young people, whose mouths are of delicate texture.

For those persons whose gums are soft and spongy, and require a tonic application, we recommend the following

*Tonic Elixir for the Gums.*

Take tincture of guaiacum, two ounces;  
—— compound lavender, one ounce;  
—— alcoholized cinnamon, and of  
—— myrrh and of aloes, of each two drachms;  
essence of London mint and Peruvian balsam,  
of each four drops.—Mix.

A tea-spoonful of this elixir may be put into a glassful of soft water, and the mouth well washed once or twice a-day.

This operation will very soon prove the good effects of the remedy, and will not fail to restore the teeth to purity.

#### *Of Caries of the Teeth.*

The general cause of caries in young persons is from some injury of the enamel, by which means the air gets into the tooth, causing pain and gradual decay. Those injuries are various, such as the use of metal toothpicks, eating or drinking things too hot and stimulating, want of care in preventing the accumulation of tartar, and occasionally a natural predisposition, which is not to be accounted for, by which the teeth decay with little or no pain.

When the pain in the teeth proceeds from a decayed tooth, it is most advisable to have it extracted, not only to put an end to the pain, but as a precautionary measure in preserving the others, which will most certainly receive a taint from the affected tooth, and probably cause the destruction of the whole. Should the patient, however, not choose to submit to the operation, we can recommend on the first appearance of pain, that a sharp dose of medicine should be taken, and the feet bathed in warm water on going to bed, which will be found more serviceable than hot spirits kept in the mouth, which is too frequently resorted to, to the entire ruin of the other teeth. The gums may also be rubbed with a little laudanum, and if the tooth is hollow, a small piece of cotton wool, dipped in laudanum, may be inserted, which will tend to alleviate the pain, or a small pill composed of opium and camphor, will probably be the better application.

When pain, apparently of a single tooth, but in reality of the whole of the jaw, takes place, proceeding from

#### *Rheumatism in the Jaw,*

to which many persons are subject, under certain states of the atmosphere, and in which the pain is not confined to any one tooth, the pellitory of Spain has often been found peculiarly useful, used in the following manner:—

#### *Elixir for Rheumatic Toothache.*

Take pellitory of Spain powdered, six drachms;  
ratified spirits, one pint.

Infuse for eight or ten days, and add  
camphor, one ounce;  
oil of rosemary, half a drachm;  
tincture of opium, two drachms.

Mix, and apply to the part, renewing it as occasion may require.

## TREATMENT OF ABSCESS WITHIN THE EAR IN INFANTS.

Children after they are six months old, are sometimes found to cry violently, and toss their little heads from side to side, expressing thereby the greatest agony. Not being able to point out the seat of pain, it is variously located by the parent or by the practitioner. It will sometimes stop crying very suddenly, and fall into a sound sleep, from which it will be roused by renewed torture. This pain is not generally attended by any disturbance of the system; fever seldom attends. It is generally mistaken for colic, or belly-ache.

It may, however, readily be distinguished from this affection, by its not being accompanied by drawing up of the legs and thighs; by no flatus rumbling in the bowels; and by the hands and feet not being cold, or the pain relieved by remedies addressed to these parts. We have always reason to suspect this pain to arise from an abscess forming in the ear, when the child throws its head backward and forward, and indeed in all directions, during the paroxysm of pain; when it is found to lie on one side easier than the other; when laudanum procures but temporary relief; and when, upon pressing the ear with the point of the finger, placed against the lower portion of the external canal, it complains; and above all, when the abscess can be discovered by looking into the ear; this, however, but seldom happens.

We have witnessed this affection so frequently, and have been so often alarmed by it, that we always apply remedies to the ears, when we have satisfied ourselves the pain is not in the bowels, by the absence of the symptoms noticed above, nor in the head itself, by the absence of all fever, or derangement of the stomach.

When we suspect the ear to be in fault, and have been called to the child in the commencement of pain, we almost invariably order a few leeches to be applied under that ear which the child will complain of, when pressed as above directed. We also direct a little laudanum on lint, pressed gently into the ear, and this repeated as occasion may require. Should these fail to afford relief, we advise a blister to be applied immediately under the ear, and purge the child pretty briskly.

This plan sometimes succeeds to admiration; and we believe it would oftener do so, were the remedies applied sufficiently early: but unfortunately, the time for useful exertion is almost always lost, by a trial of temporising applications: and we have but too often the mortification to witness only the discharge



from the ear. When the ear discharges, the little patient is immediately relieved; it falls into a sound sleep, and forgets all its sufferings, until again it is obliged to go through the process a second, and even a third time, in the period of two or three months.

Sometimes the abscess heals without the smallest trouble, leaving the ear free from discharge in the course of a few days; but at other times, the mischief done the inner cavity of the ear is serious and permanent. The small bones of the ear become detached by suppuration, and are discharged with the pus which constantly flows from the external orifice of this organ. The discharge generally becomes very offensive; both from the matter being confined, as well as from the caries under which the bones are labouring. When caries take place, the case is almost hopeless; and must in a great measure be abandoned to nature, only paying attention to cleanliness.

It is a matter of primary importance to keep the parts clean by frequently washing out the canal, first, with fine soap and warm water, followed by equal parts of lime-water and milk, and a small portion of the tincture of myrrh. Our formula for this purpose is as follows:—

Of lime water and milk, each two tea-spoonfuls;  
tincture of myrrh, twenty drops.—Mix.

This mixture should be prepared only as it may be wanted, and thrown into the ear four or five times a day. At night the child should be made to lie upon the affected side, that the matter may discharge freely.

This discharge from the ear is always attended by dulness of hearing: on this account it were desirable it should be relieved as quickly as possible, lest its continuance do irreparable mischief to this organ. The mixture of lime-water and milk, when no serious injury has been done to the bones of the ear, will, if properly persisted in, very often succeed; and we are informed by a late writer on this affection, that a solution of the nitrate of silver will be found a most valuable application.

We think we have seen advantage from the little patient wearing a plaster spread with Burgundy pitch, or shoemaker's wax, under the affected ear. And we once witnessed a case of years standing, yield to an issue in the arm of the side affected. This was kept discharging for a year; it was then suffered to heal, which it did without any subsequent disadvantage.

## DR. WILSON PHILIP ON THE BENEFICIAL EFFECTS OF THREE MEDICINES IN INDIGESTION.

Dr. Wilson Philip has lately published an Appendix to his Treatise on Indigestion, in which he says, that "there are three medicines, the importance of which, particularly the first and last, is so great in the treatment of indigestion, that a few additional observations on their employment are particularly called for; and the more so, that none of them have been very generally employed in that disease."

*Of the Nitrate of Potash.*

Some saline medicine I consider essential in the second stage of Indigestion, for reasons which have already been pointed out; and I have found none so beneficial as the nitrate of potash. I feel no hesitation in saying, on the one hand, that it enables us at this period to lessen the quantity of mercury, and on the other, that increasing the quantity of the latter will by no means produce the good effect of combining it with this nitrate, to say nothing of the greater tendency of mercury to impair the strength.

The nitrate of potash is chiefly indicated when there is a tendency to an increase of heat in the evening, or during the night, and particularly to a burning in the hands and feet; and in such cases its good effects are both greatest and most quickly apparent; but they are not confined to such cases. When there is no increase of heat, and even when the temperature is below the healthy standard, if this be not the case in a considerable degree, I still find this medicine to add to the good effects of the alterative course, provided there is an evident tightness of pulse, when examined in the way pointed out in my Treatise on Indigestion; but in such cases it is generally proper to combine it with some warm medicine. Small doses of tincture of orange peel, or the compound tincture of cardamoms, are those I have generally employed.

When I first made trial of this combination, I doubted whether the good effects of the salt would not be wholly counteracted by the warm medicines; but I soon found that this is by no means the case, and that the advantage derived from the former, as an alterative, is very little interfered with by the latter. Here, it is true, we do not obtain the cooling effect of the salt; it is combined with the tincture to prevent this effect. It is its effect on the vessels of the digestive organs, and on the extreme vessels in general that is wanted, and which appears to be little, if at all, impaired by this addition.

It is generally, not always, as might be supposed, in those cases where the surface is most inclined to be cold, that the patient is most subject to depression of strength and spirits. Here warm medicines are doubly indicated, and the occasional use of ammonia, even in considerable doses, I have found very beneficial, and very little liable to interfere with the alterative effect of the nitrate. The effect of the latter, however, sometimes materially interferes with its effect. I have seen some in whom the languor of circulation and coldness of habit were such, that the chilling effect of the nitrate could not be counteracted by any stimulus it would be proper to employ. In such cases the nitrate must be abandoned. They are, however, comparatively rare.

In a still smaller number, from predisposition of constitution, even very small doses of this salt cannot be borne, apparently from the irritation of the stomach and bowels which they occasion; and I have met with cases in which none of the salts, into the composition of which potash enters, could be borne.

Although the cases in which it is necessary to abandon the nitrate of potash are rare, it is not very uncommon to be obliged to give it in small doses, five or six grains. It should never be given in such doses as very sensibly to add to the sense of depression. But such, in general, is the effect of this medicine in the second stage of indigestion, that it is not at all uncommon for patients, guided merely by their own feelings, to continue the use of it after they have gradually laid aside all others, and to declare that they derive from it a kind of relief which they never experienced from any other means. This has not been the observation of one or two, but of a large proportion of those who have used it. Yet nobody would think of giving nitrate of potash in the commencement of indigestion; and it is not even mentioned in the catalogue of stomachic medicines. Can any opinions be brought in opposition to these, and many similar facts, laid before the reader in my *Treatise on Indigestion*, tending to establish the same position; that the nature of this disease is changed in its progress, and requires in its different stages very different, and even opposite plans of cure? Those who maintain such opinions have a very imperfect knowledge of indigestion. Their knowledge of it has never gone beyond the first stage; from which their views of its nature, as well as plans of treatment, are derived; neither of which, a more careful observation will teach them, are applicable to the stage before us.

I have found the good effects of nitrate of potash sensibly increased, by combining with it a small quantity of mucilage, and a very slight anodyne. From six to twelve minims of tincture of



hyosciamus, or a combination of two or three drops of laudanum, with four or five of wine of ipecacuanha, I have found the best. These doses will only appear trifling to those who have not attentively watched the symptoms of indigestion, in the more advanced stages of which the nerves, from repeated irritation, often acquire a sensibility which appears almost incredible. The gums are among the least sensible parts of our frame, but those who have been troubled with carious teeth, know how exquisitely sensible they may be rendered by irritation of long continuance.

I have had occasion to observe, that indigestion attends, and I might have said, lays the foundation of most of the diseases of infancy; and it is remarked, that the duration of the first stage of indigestion is very various, the symptoms of the second stage showing themselves at various periods in different cases. In children, those of the second stage supervene very early, and the disease in them often appears to commence in the liver rather than the stomach, the latter suffering only secondarily, which is the reverse of what usually happens in the adult, at least in this country. It is the early supervention of the second stage which renders saline medicines so essential in their diseases.

If the disease has made any considerable progress in them, no course of mercurials, or any other means will succeed well without medicines of this description; and I have found the nitrate of potash invaluable in most of their diseases. Their nerves, as well as vessels, are more irritable than those of the adult. It is on this account that in them the more advanced stages of indigestion supervene more readily, and are attended with more fever, and more apt to produce serious derangement. Continued irritation of the digestive organs, which in the adult produces a tight pulse, and often a tendency to increased heat in them, produces actual fever, which is only a greater degree of the same symptoms.

Such is the nature of what has been called the remitting fever of children, which is so apt, when neglected, to end in effusion on the brain; the part in children most liable to suffer from the general irritation kept up by a deranged state of the digestive organs. For once that the hydrocephalus of children arises from other causes, it arises twenty times from affections of these organs.

#### *Of Tartarized Antimony.*

Tartarized antimony is proper in many of the same cases in which nitrate of potash is so beneficial; but it is a medicine of very different properties, and the principles which regulate its

employment are very different. It appears, from experiments which the College of Physicians did me the honour to publish in the last volume of their Transactions, that of all the means that were tried, tartarized antimony had the greatest effect in suddenly exciting the action of the skin. It has comparatively little effect in exciting sensible perspiration; but, as appears from these experiments, as well as many other circumstances, it is not by sensible perspiration, but by a free state of the insensible action of the skin, that its vigour is indicated.

When the reader considers what has been said respecting the state of the skin in indigestion, he will be prepared for the good effect of such a medicine in the more protracted cases of this disease. I have had many patients who told me that they could always secure a good day by exciting sensible perspiration in the morning. This for a reason just mentioned, and others stated in my Treatise, should not be our aim in indigestion; but it is more favourable than the arid state of the dyspeptic's skin, and affords temporary relief.

When the surface is dry, and the tendency to feverish attacks considerable, and we have reason to believe that the disease is, in a great measure, supported by the general state of the secreting surfaces, the tartarized antimony, as might *à priori* be expected, is often a valuable medicine; and I was agreeably disappointed to find that doses so minute as neither to excite nausea, nor any increased sense of debility, are often sufficient to produce a sensible improvement. A slight degree of nausea, if it be only occasional, I have found of little importance; and contrary to what might be expected, it seldom even impairs the appetite. The antimonial has always been laid aside when it has appeared to increase the sense of sinking. The dose I have employed has generally been from the tenth to the eighth part of a grain, three or four times a day. I have never seen the least bad effect from such doses, even when continued for months; and the patient, when it was laid aside, missing its good effects, has often requested to be allowed to resume it.

Analogous to what takes place in fever, when the tendency to increased heat is greater than usual, it has been found particularly serviceable, combined with the nitrate of potash. But of all the cases in which it was employed, it was found most beneficial in those where the dry skin and debilitated state of the other excretories had produced a determination of blood to the head, and it has been found necessary to continue it in such cases, after all other medicines had been laid aside.

Even in the early periods of the disease, great advantage is often derived from combining small doses of tartarized antimony



with cathartics. It frequently has an operation on the bowels analogous to its effect on the skin, relaxing the surface, and thus rendering the action of cathartics more free. The same observation, indeed, applies more or less to all the secreting surfaces. In this respect its operation resembles that of mercury, but it produces its effects more quickly, and they are not, as in the case of the latter, apt to accumulate in the constitution, which makes it a less powerful medicine, but renders it safer, and thus, under certain circumstances, increases its utility. It may sometimes, with great advantage, be substituted for mercury, and very often combined with it, for the purpose of rendering less mercury necessary.

The beneficial effects of antimony, in cutaneous affections, has long been acknowledged; when indigestion produces such affections, therefore, it is doubly indicated.

The operation of the colchicum is in many respects analogous to that of antimony; I have often used it, in very minute doses, for the purpose of relaxing the skin and softening the pulse in the advanced stages of indigestion. It was not among the medicines whose effects were compared with those of tartarized antimony, in the experiments just referred to; I cannot, therefore, say whether on the whole it may be equal to that medicine as a diaphoretic. In some respects it bears the same relation to antimony that this medicine does to mercury. Its effects are more sudden and more transitory; but it is capable of more violent effects than either of those medicines, and must always be used with caution, except in very minute doses.

The colchicum often has a peculiar effect in relieving the local inflammatory affections, so apt to supervene in protracted cases of indigestion, particularly those of the head and chest, and rheumatic pains of the muscles. I have often been disappointed in this effect of the colchicum before evacuations, and seen it act like a charm after them. When employed only with a view to relax the pulse and excretories, I have used it in extremely small doses; in rather larger doses with a view to relieve cough and pain, but always lessened the dose if it produced more than a very gentle action on the bowels, or a decided softness of the skin.

In the second stage of indigestion, whatever plan is adopted, much depends on the gentleness of the effect produced. I have long been convinced that this state is only to be removed by a slight effect regularly kept up for a considerable length of time. All powerful means, which are necessarily transitory, because they would soon destroy the patient if they were continued, fail to cure, and very often aggravate it.



In the first stage, when the strength is unimpaired, and the habit of the disease feeble, powerful means will sometimes at once check its progress. In the second stage, where the opposites of these conditions obtain, this never happens. It is by the most gentle and frequently repeated impressions that the organs are solicited once more to resume their healthy action.

From what has just been said of the effects of the colchicum, compared with those of antimony, the reader will perceive that the former is, on the whole, less suited to the second stage of indigestion than the antimony; although its more speedy operation, its peculiar effect in relieving the inflammatory tendency, and particularly the power it sometimes evinces of allaying pain and cough, renders it preferable under certain circumstances.

The effect of tartarized antimony in severe nervous agitation is very remarkable. Its power, even in allaying the symptoms of mania itself, is well known. I have found rather larger doses than those just mentioned, combined with moderate doses of hyoseyamus, by many degrees the most powerful means of allaying the more severe forms of nervous irritation which now and then appear in protracted cases of indigestion, not depending on any local irritation, the seat of which the patient can point out, but on the state induced by long continued irritation of the general source of nervous power. The medicine we are next to consider has also a very powerful influence on the nervous system, but in a different way.

#### *Of Ammonia.*

The effects of ammonia in certain states of indigestion are very valuable, and such as cannot be produced by any other means. We have no other means which so powerfully excite the nerves with so little disturbance to other parts. My attention was called to it above twenty years ago, by the essential benefit derived from very large doses of it in a case which had resisted all the usual means.

In some cases of indigestion, with the contracted pulse of the second stage, the vital fluids seem as it were to leave the surface, which is obstinately cold. The pulse in such cases is always very feeble, and the patient for the most part complains of great depression, hangs over the fire, and says that no exercise he can take has the effect of warming him. The nerves here are failing in one of their essential functions, that of supporting, by their action on the blood, the due degree of animal temperature; for in all such cases the temperature, measured by the thermometer, is actually, and sometimes considerably, below that of health. Here the ammonia is invaluable, being

less apt than any other stimulus of the same power with respect to the nerves, to excite the heart and blood-vessels; which, from the tendency of the disease, are inclined to a degree of excitement beyond that in due proportion to the state of the other powers.

The carbonate of ammonia may be taken in doses of from five to ten grains several times a day with safety, and probably in larger doses; and it rarely fails, if given in the proper dose, with such exercise as the patient can bear, to diffuse warmth throughout the system. Nor is the benefit derived from it of a mere transitory nature. A state of chill tends not only to aggravate all the symptoms, but to confirm the disease. I have even known the digestion constantly deranged by the temperature of the room being so low as to cause a feeling of chilliness.

Ammonia is also a valuable medicine in most of the nervous affections which attend indigestion, even when the patient is not particularly chilly, provided the nerves are so far languid in the function of preserving the temperature, as to allow of its being taken in considerable quantity, without heating too much, an inconvenience which attends the free use of it in most cases of the second stage of the disease.

I have little doubt that, to the tendency of ammonia to excite the skin, we must in part ascribe its good effects in indigestion. It is probably chiefly to this effect that we ought to ascribe the advantage derived from some of its preparations, particularly the liquor ammoniæ acetatis, in the second stage of indigestion; in which I have repeatedly seen it eminently serviceable, when the ammonia itself heated too much. Nothing, in this stage of indigestion, more requires the attention of the physician than adapting the tendency of the treatment, to heat or cool, to the circumstances of his patient. If we here attempt to lay down any general rule, we shall be led into error. The peculiar circumstances of the disease or constitution, for reasons which we cannot always detect, bear the one or other tendency better in one case than in another. The state of the pulse, and the effect of the means employed, are our best guides; and on our forming a correct judgment in this respect, both the comfort of our patient, and his final recovery, greatly depend.

These observations are as applicable to diet as medicine. I have elsewhere pointed out that there are cases of the second stage of indigestion, in which an abstinence from animal food is proper; such cases, however, are rare. But when the pulse is obstinately tight, abstaining from it two days in the week, I have sometimes found to produce an effect which it is impossible to procure by any other means. The patient has felt himself

almost immediately more at ease. The bowels in particular have become less irritable, and more obedient to medicine; the skin softer, and the countenance much improved, and the ammonia, or other stimulants of the nervous system, better borne. The patient is often so pleased with the effect, that he thinks he has found a sovereign remedy for all his complaints. Let a dyspeptic, whose pulse has not acquired the same degree of tightness, and whose skin consequently is softer, follow the same plan, and it will do little more than add to the debility, and increase the flatulence both of the stomach and bowels. On the other hand, the stimulant, which the latter will tell you saves him from despair, given to the former, will hardly fail to increase all his sufferings; and yet, to a superficial observer, these two patients are much in the same state. They both complain of depression of mind and body, and those thousand nameless symptoms which attend irritation of the nerves of the stomach and bowels, are rendered doubly sensible by their long continued irritation.

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#### TO MAKE BRITISH BRANDY.

To sixty gallons of clean rectified spirits, put one pound of sweet spirit of nitre, one pound of cassia buds, ground, one pound of bitter almond meal (the cassia and almond meal to be mixed together before they are put to the spirits), two ounces of orris root, sliced (not powdered), and about thirty or forty prune stones, pounded; rummage them all well together two or three times a day, for three days or more; let them settle, then add one gallon of the best wine vinegar, and if you wish to have it better than British brandy is in common, add to every four gallons, one gallon of foreign brandy, which will make it nearly equal to foreign itself.

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#### TO MAKE AN ARTIFICIAL PROOF.

To make an artificial proof for spirits, take pearl-ashes, a quarter of a pound; potashes, ditto; soper's lye-water, three quarts; one ounce of the oil of vitriol; one pint of the oil of almonds; lime-water, one gallon; add a little of this mixture to your goods, by degrees, till you find it carries a good head.

Notwithstanding we have given this receipt, we do not recommend any person in the spirit trade to make use of it.

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#### CURIOUS CASE OF A CHINESE, COMMUNICATED TO THE ROYAL INSTITUTE OF FRANCE.

Dr. Bordat read a paper on a Chinese, twenty-one years of



age, to the surface of whose breast; an acephalous foetus was attached. There are two different stories respecting this individual, who was brought to Macao three years ago, and submitted to the inspections of Drs. Lurington and Pearson. During the stay of this latter gentleman at Canton, in January, 1825, he had an opportunity of seeing him constantly for two days, and from Dr. Pearson the following remarks are obtained:—"The individual was twenty-one years of age, presented no peculiarity of constitution, and had the same colour as other Chinese. He was of a middle size, and the only difference observed, was that the organs of generation were slightly developed. The foetus adhered to the sternum, from the fourth to the eighth rib. In this extent, the bone projected to such a length as to give it the appearance of the head of the child. M. Pearson was not, however, certain whether this was in reality a projection of the sternum, or of some part of the foetus. The foetus had neither the dorsal nor the lumbar vertebræ, or at least they could not be discovered by the touch, whilst the cervical could. The upper extremities were very little developed, and no muscles could be distinguished on them; there was nothing but the skin and bones. The sternal extremity of the clavicle rested on the sternum of the adult. A few of the ribs could be felt, and the lower extremities were more fully developed than the upper ones. The muscles on the thighs and legs could be distinctly felt. Both the fingers and toes were provided with nails. The umbilicus was very distinct in the foetus, and the parts of generation were more fully developed in it in proportion, than in the adult. One of the testicles was in the scrotum, and the other in the inguinal canal. The penis was perforated, and M. Pearson was told that it voided urine, which, however, he did not believe to be the case. The foetus had no anus; but the folds of the skin in that part were very distinct. The adult felt distinctly when the skin of the child was pinched. The pulse of the adult was quicker than is ordinarily the case in grown up persons; it varied from ninety to a hundred beats in the minute. The individual is probably still living; he returned to his native place, notwithstanding the advantageous offers which were made to him, to persuade him to come to Europe."

The commissioners appointed to report on the above case, were MM. Dumeril, and Geoffroy St. Hilaire.

*Sitting of the 28th of August.—Report on the above Case.*

M. Geoffroy St. Hilaire read a Report on the Chinese monster, which had been the subject of Dr. Bordat's paper, from which the following extract will be found interesting:—

This monstrosity consists in the addition of an acephalous fœtus to the epigastric region of a Chinese, about twenty-two years old. The commissioners do not entertain the slightest doubt about the authenticity of the fact, and their conviction of its truth is founded less on the numerous proofs which have been afforded them in the description of the monstrosity, than on preceding parallel cases with which the annals of science abound; for twenty cases similar to the one now under consideration, have been narrated. Ambroise Paré, Beneveninus, Columbus, Montano, and others have described them. Schenkius relates thirteen such cases, of which three were observed by himself. Aldrovarde gives plates of three others, which he has collected in the same article, under the name of *monstrum bicorpor monocephalon*. There is another case of a Swiss, who was born in 1764, and from whom the acephalous individual was dexterously detached by a surgeon. Winslow also mentions a case of a girl who died in 1733 at the Hotel Dieu. The extreme unction was about to be administered to her, when it was discovered there was an acephalous fœtus connected with the stomach. This circumstance raised the question, whether the extreme unction ought to be administered to the two individuals? It was on this absurd question that Winslow was consulted; his answer is not known.

M. G. St. Hilaire examined the different points contained in the description, and stated that he had classed all monstrosities of the kind under one genus, which he had termed *heteradelphes*, or dissimilar twin brothers.

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#### ON EXHAUSTION AND SINKING IN OLD AGE.

The state of sinking is apt to come on in old age, as it does in infancy, unattended and unprecedented by the symptoms of reaction. There are transient flushes of the cheeks and an increased frequency of the pulse; but the force of the arterial beat does not pass beyond that of health, but, on the contrary, becomes gradually more and more feeble.

Nothing can be more accurate than Sir Henry Hallford's description of this state. He observes, "it sometimes comes on so gradually and insensibly, that the patient is hardly aware of its commencement. He perceives that he is sooner tired than usual, and that he is thinner than he was; but yet he has nothing material to complain of. In process of time his appetite becomes seriously impaired; his nights are sleepless, or if he gets sleep, he is not refreshed by it. His face becomes visibly



extenuated, or perhaps acquires a bloated look. His tongue is white, and he suspects that he has fever.

“ If he ask advice, his pulse is found quicker than it should be, and he acknowledges that he has felt pains occasionally in his head and chest; and that his legs are disposed to swell; yet there is no deficiency in the quantity of his urine, nor any other sensible failure in the action of the abdominal viscera, excepting that the bowels are more sluggish than they used to be.

“ Sometimes the headache is accompanied with vertigo, and sometimes severe rheumatic pains, as the patient believes them to be, are felt in various parts of the body, and in the limbs; but, on inquiry, these have not the ordinary seat, nor the common accompaniments of rheumatism, and seem rather to take the course of the nerves than of the muscular fibres.

“ In the latter stages of this disease, the stomach seems to lose all its powers; the frame becomes more and more emaciated; the cellular membrane, in the lower limbs, is laden with fluid; there is an insurmountable restlessness by day, and a total want of sleep at night; the mind grows torpid and indifferent to what formerly interested it; and the patient sinks at last, seeming rather to cease to live, than to die of a mortal distemper.”

The countenance, besides being thinner and paler than before, often betrays a peculiar imbecility both of the muscles and perhaps of the mind or feelings, by certain peculiar rapid movements observed in the chin and cheeks; a similar debility is observed both in the articulation and in the movements and manner in general; the feelings are, in some instances, very susceptible, and the patient is apt even to shed tears, and is unable perhaps to bear society; besides the headache and vertigo, there is sometimes a degree of fluttering in the region of the heart or stomach, and the pulse is apt to be irregular; the breathing is easily hurried by exertion or emotion; the patient is soon fatigued; there are wakefulness and restlessness, with thirst and heat; the ends of the fingers are apt to become of a pale livid hue and cold; the muscular flesh wastes, and the patient is observed to be much “ altered.”

In this state of exhaustion I have several times known an attack very similar to *paralysis* to take place. In one patient the head fell down upon the chest, the muscles of the back becoming all at once affected with such debility as to be incapable of supporting it. From this debility the patient recovered gradually, and was once more able to hold his head erect. Another patient suddenly lost, in a great degree, the power of arti-



culation and of deglutition. He recovered this power in a great measure, but soon passed into a fatal sinking state.

Such is the state of things before that of positive sinking begins, and from such a state the patient may recover; but in a short time, if recovery be delayed, that other change takes place, and appears to lead irretrievably to dissolution.

With increased debility of the muscles and of the pulse, there is now slight delirium with a tendency to dozing; there is rattling in the throat and in the bronchia, with laborious and imperfect breathing; in some instances there is retention, with or without incontinence, of urine; the cheeks, hands, and feet become pale, livid, and cold, and the eye is covered with a film of mucus; after some unusual effort, or perhaps just after the bowels have been moved, the patient frequently expires rather suddenly; otherwise there is the most gradual sinking of the powers of life, perhaps after several unexpected changes for better and worse.

Sir Henry Hallford makes the following just remarks on the most usual causes of this state:—"Of the various immediate causes to which this malady may owe its commencement, there is none more frequent than a common cold. When the body is predisposed to this change, any occasion of feverish excitement, and a privation of rest at the same time, will readily induce it. I have known an act of intemperance, where intemperance was not habitual, the first apparent cause of it. A fall, which did not appear of consequence at the moment, and which would not have been so at any other time, has sometimes jarred the frame into this disordered action. A marriage contracted late in life has also afforded the first occasion to this change; but above all, anxiety of mind and sorrow have laid the surest foundation for the malady in its least remediable form."

#### *Of Sinking in certain Diseases.*

Some diseases are apt to issue, even at a rather early period, in a state of sinking; in other cases sinking supervenes in the later stages of these diseases. This state seems sometimes to be the result of a direct influence of the disease in lowering the vital powers; sometimes the disease has subsided, but the state of sinking has continued and destroyed the patient; and sometimes the sinking has appeared to annihilate the morbid actions which constituted the disease, and thus to prove a cure, though a fatal one. In the latter cases, the physician whose eye is fixed on the disease alone,—and the friends of the dying patient are apt, from the apparent truce in the actions or pains of the disease, to be led into a sanguine though delusive hope that the

patient is better;—there is perhaps a degree of dozing, mistaken for a long-wished for sleep, or some painful symptom has subsided, and the patient expresses himself as easier;—but there are some of the appearances or symptoms about to be described, which will not fail to undeceive the careful observer.

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#### THE EFFECT OF THE PASSIONS ON HEALTH.

Among the various systems which have had their day in physic, and which farther investigation, and more acute inquiries, have overturned, there are two, so immediately connected with this subject that it is necessary to advert to them; the one was formed by Stahl, and the other by Hoffman, both able men, and the founders of two celebrated schools in medicine.

According to the doctrines of Stahl, the disorders in the human body, *proceed principally from the mind*; and according as it is variously affected, it produces different diseases. Hence when the mind, which animates the most robust and best organized body is violently agitated by fright, terror, rage, corroding grief, envy, vehement desire, or any other passion, whether sudden, or attended by long and painful sensations, the body manifestly suffers. Of the power of mind over body (says an intelligent correspondent), I have seen some striking instances, and can safely affirm, that mental agitation is a strong predisposing cause of disease. I lost two friends some years ago, in fevers, the origin and progress of whose complaints I knew, and carefully watched. One was a physician, of a very strong and robust habit of body, but whose mind having been dreadfully agitated by a particular vexation, he caught a low typhus fever, in visiting a poor patient, and sunk under it. The other was a gentleman of great delicacy of sentiment, and who was cruelly harassed, by the brutal behaviour of a partner in business. He took a typhus, though no cause of infection could be traced, and fell a victim to it. I am satisfied that the actual cause of the death of both was mental agitation, and a variety of diseases, as apoplexy, palsy, madness, fevers, hysterics, may be the result. It evidently appears, that, in these cases, it is the mind which has affected the body, and occasioned its derangement.

Hoffman, and his disciples, on the other hand, maintain that the primitive cause of all disorders lies *in the structure of the body*, and the mechanism of its organs. Hence, that when a noble and essential part of the body is destroyed, or even greatly injured, death ensues; and that any disorder, in any of the essential parts of the body, causes not only a disease of the body,



but frequently of the mind also, in proportion as the part affected is more or less intimately connected with the faculty of thinking. They assert, that intense cold, for instance, may occasion a fever, as well as a sudden and violent fright; and that a stroke with a mallet, upon the head of a man, is sufficient to disorder the most rational, acute, and vigorous mind. Hence, it is evident, they affirm, that the diseases both of the body and of the mind, are visibly occasioned by the disorders of the body.

Whoever considers this subject dispassionately, will probably be of opinion, that, to a certain extent, both these systems are right; and that the only error is, in restricting the sources of human maladies, either to the mind, or to the body, when either may occasion various disorders; and sometimes both are so complicated and blended together, that it is impossible to say which was the actual parent of the disease. As it will hardly be disputed, that the mind causes many of those disorders with which the body is afflicted, it is proper to consider, what circumstances, whether connected with the powers or faculties of the mind, or with the motives or passions by which it is influenced, are calculated for the preservation of the health or may occasion disease.

*Of the Mind in general, as connected with Health.*

The body of man, it is well known, requires constant reparation; and its strength is exhausted, not only by its own exertions but also when the mental powers are too much exercised. In proof of the latter position, let any person try the effect of intense thinking for twelve hours; and he will soon find, how much his body is thereby fatigued, though he should never stir from the chair he sat on. It is necessary, therefore, with a view to the preservation of health: to be as careful and moderate in exercising the mind as the body; for, as the poet of Health has well remarked,

“ ’Tis the great art of life, to manage well  
The restless mind.”

It may also be proper to observe, that the gradual improvement of the mind, is as essential for health, as the gradual growth of the person; and, indeed, there is hardly an instance, where the faculties of the mind have soon reached maturity, that they have been accompanied with long life.

Nor do those who possess the highest powers of the mind, in their utmost perfection, generally attain great age. Among the long list of persons that has been published, who have lived above a century, there is but one individual (Fontenelle), at all



distinguished for his intellectual powers, (and he hardly reached 100 years; whilst there are known to be above 1700 others, remarkable for little else but for the number of years they witnessed. In fact, the envy which men of talents encounter, and the disappointments they experience in their expectations of receiving that profound attention and respect to which they think themselves entitled, (which the world is seldom disposed to pay them, at least while they remain in life,) keep them in a perpetual state of irritation and disquiet, which hurries them prematurely to the grave.

That superiority of intellect, to which the appellation of genius may be given, is rarely to be met with, though there are some instances of it, even in our own times. In some cases, a man of genius sees things as if it were intuitively, and acquires, without difficulty, what costs others much labour. In other cases, it is by deep study and reflexion that a man of genius is distinguished. In the first case, acuteness is joined to perspicuity; in the second case, great vigour of intellect is united with a comprehensive mind. It has been observed, that those who are distinguished by the elegance of their shape, or the beauty of their persons, are very rarely celebrated for talent; and that men of talent are extremely irritable. Indeed, as Hoffman observes, inflamed imagination, and the like, are far more frequent in modern times, *than genuine natural sense, and rectitude of judgment*. These splendid qualities of the present day, he thinks, ought to be considered, not as bursts of energy, but as serious symptoms of a diseased and unfortunate irritability of the mind; and he ventures to hope, that a healthier tone of mind may be expected, from the continuance of a better and more natural treatment of the physical man.

The talents naturally calculated for very long life, are, indeed, more of a solid than of a brilliant cast. Those who possess the latter, may live to reach 100 years of age, if they have, what men of genius seldom possess, *equanimity*; but if the mind is of too restless and ardent a nature, it must necessarily be worn out. The experience of any individual may satisfy him, how much the mind may be affected by too intense application, during the short space of a single day, and, consequently, how much more it must feel from a continual repetition of the same effort, for any considerable length of time. The mind, therefore, naturally inclined to moderation in its exertions is the most likely to preserve the body in good health; not ambitious to acquire too many ideas, nor too much information, but desirous of making a proper use of the knowledge it has obtained. In short, a man possessed of sound sense, rather than of brilliant talent, or he

who enjoys the *mens sana in corpore sano*, is the most likely to attain longevity.

One reason why men of great talents live for a shorter time than those who do not rival them in that respect, more especially if accompanied by early maturity, is, that they are generally formed with more delicacy of frame. Brilliant faculties are seldom accompanied with great strength of body. A strong clumsy man is almost proverbially heavy and stupid. There are some instances to the contrary, as David Hume, Samuel Johnson, and Charles James Fox; but by far the greatest proportion of men distinguished by their talents are of puny frames, with irritable minds, and strong passions, and, consequently, not so likely to live long, (unless great attention is paid to their health,) as their more robust, but duller brethren.

*Of the Violent and Distressing Passions of the Mind, and their Effects on Health.*

The instances, however, of those who impair their health by a severe exercise of their mental powers, are rare, compared to those who destroy it by the violence of their passions; which, when they become vehement and immoderate, may be justly ranked among the diseases themselves, because they disorder the body in various ways; and in the words of the poet,

— the most important health,  
That of the mind, destroy.

A few general remarks on this subject, are all that fall within the limits of a work of this nature and extent.

It is certain, that the passions were given for wise and useful purposes; but they must be kept under the strictest and most complete subjection. If uncontrouled, and left to themselves, they affect us, as a tempest does the ocean, without our being able to counteract their pernicious influence. Fortunately, they may be regulated by education, by early restraint, or by unwearied personal attention, founded on the full conviction of its necessity, the practicability of which has been proved in the instances of Augustus and Cornaro. At the same time, each individual has a natural disposition, or turn of mind, born with him. The passions do not act with equal force on all. Their effects vary, according to the diversity of constitution, both of mind and of body; and, even in the same individual, differ at different times. Happy is the man, however, whose temper is naturally good, or who has found means to correct its violence.

*Power of Controuling the Temper.*

Sometimes men while in the vigour of life, subdue an untoward disposition, finding necessary for their success and ad-



vancement ; for enabling them to live comfortably in society ; for preventing quarrels, and their consequences ; from the strictness of martial discipline, and other causes ; and yet after they get old, and fall into a valetudinary or diseased state, lose their good humour, lay aside their former calmness of temper, and become fretful and irascible. This should be checked, if possible, at the commencement ; for by the indulgence of any unruly passion, the disorders of old age are greatly aggravated ; and they will find too late, that to retain when once acquired, a dominion over our passions and affections, is an essential and indispensable requisite to health.

It has often been remarked, that persons destitute of ambition and avarice are peculiarly likely to enjoy long life.

Free from those anxious cares which oft perplex  
The wily statesman, or the miser vex,

they feel no regret for the past, nor anxiety about the future. Enjoying that tranquillity of soul, on which the happiness of our early years so much depends, they are strangers to those torments of the mind which usually accompany more advanced years, and by which the body is wasted and consumed. Hence a calm, contented, and cheerful disposition, may be justly considered the great source of health, in regard both of body and mind, and ought to be accounted the most important of all our possessions.

Modern times, also, it is justly observed, are distinguished by a spirit of restless enterprise, and propensity to new undertakings, which deprives many of the most valuable part of their life. The great increase of luxury, by still multiplying its wants makes new schemes, and new exertions of the faculties, always more necessary. Hence arises that endless uneasiness, which destroys all sensations of internal tranquillity and contentment, and which never suffers men to enjoy that degree of peace and relaxation, so indispensibly requisite for the preservation and the restoration of health.

It is necessary to observe, at the same time, that, in several instances, a certain activity of mind has accompanied longevity. Lord Bacon remarks, that the milder sort of creatures, as the sheep and the dove, are not long-lived ; and that choler is the whetstone and spur to many functions in the body. He admits, that to be lean, with a settled temper, denotes long life ; but then he contends, (as has already been remarked), that persons who are inclined to corpulency, cannot expect long life unless it is joined with choler, and a disposition stirring and peremp-  
tory.

Medical authors have frequently inculcated, and certainly with



reason, that, by the due regulation of the passions, many fatal disorders might be prevented; and that a large proportion of the diseases to which we are prone; originate from the influence of the passions on the human system.

Every day's experience points out, how frequently giving way to passion occasions the most dreadful disorders. Anger carried to an extreme, often terminates in fury and madness; grief, anxiety and despair, occasion melancholy, and all its baneful consequences. To give way to passion, therefore, is *to strike the colours* to disease, and to surrender to an implacable enemy who might have been subdued by a manly resistance.

### *The Effects of Fear on Health.*

There is no emotion of the mind which, with a view to health, it is so necessary to subdue, as that of fear. It has justly been called a base passion, and beneath the dignity of man. It robs him of power, reflection, resolution, judgment; and, in short, of all that pre-eminence which the human mind ought to enjoy. To be terrified, therefore, for the effects of thunder, or the appearance of spirits in the night, or similar chimeras, cannot be too strongly reprobated.

Fear also has great influence both in occasioning and in aggravating diseases, and in preventing their cure. Enlightened surgeons will undertake no important operation where the mind of the patient is greatly alarmed by fear, from a just apprehension of the immediate or remote consequences. By depressing the spirits, fear not only disposes us to disease, but often renders those diseases fatal, which an undaunted mind would overcome. Indeed, the constant dread of some future evil, by dwelling on the mind, often occasions the very mischief which was so much apprehended. Timorous persons also are more readily infected by epidemical disorders, than those possessed of true courage; because fear not only weakens the energy of the heart, but at the same time increases the susceptibility of receiving contagion. It increases the malignity of diseases, changes their natural course, aggravates them by a thousand incidental circumstances; and the efforts of nature being thus suppressed, nothing but a speedy dissolution can be looked for. This is a point which cannot be too much inculcated; for experience sufficiently demonstrates, that many perish from despondency, who, if they had preserved their spirit and vigour of mind, might have survived many years.

Among the various disorders which originate from the influence of the mind, that which is denominated the Swiss malady, is the most remarkable. It is occasioned by a desire of revisit-

ing their own country; and of witnessing again the scenes of their youth, to which the natives of other mountainous countries, but particularly those of Switzerland, are so much attached. This disorder is said to begin with melancholy, sadness, love of solitude, silence, loss of appetite, bodily weakness, and a hectic fever in the evening; which is frequently accompanied with livid or purple spots upon the body. When the disorder is violent, nothing avails but returning to their own country, the very preparations for which are attended with immediate relief.

It is the more necessary to attend to the effects of the passions upon the health of man, as there is reason to believe, that any disorder arising from any vehement agitation of mind, is more stubborn than that which is occasioned by violent corporeal exertions; because the latter is cured by rest and sleep, which have but little influence on the former.

Nor ought it to be omitted, what Bacon remarks, that any agitation of mind prevents the benefits which we ought, naturally to derive both from food and rest. He, therefore, very properly recommends, that if any violent passion should chance to surprise us, either when we sit down to our meals, or compose ourselves to sleep, to defer eating, or going to bed, until it subsides, and the mind recovers its former tranquillity.

The passions, as Hufeland justly observes, if they are given way to, have a tendency to exhaust the finest of the vital powers; to destroy, in particular, digestion and assimilation; to weaken the vigour of the heart; and, by these means, to impede the important business of restoration.

If such are the effects of yielding to the impulses of our more violent passions, what can be more desirable for the health and happiness of man, than to keep those sources of disease and misery under due subjection? By this is meant, not a stoical indifference, which would prevent our enjoying many of the pleasures of life, but such a due regulation of the emotions and affections of the mind, as would enable us to enjoy all its advantages, without being the slaves of unmanly fear, of animal appetite, or of any inferior passion. A mind possessed of spirit and fortitude, will not sink under those disappointments to which all, but particularly the aged, are necessarily subjected; whereas, the unfortunate individual, who is subdued by fear, rage, despair, or any other violent passion, can neither enjoy health, nor feel any pleasure in his existence.

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#### ON THE ADVANTAGES OF CHANGE OF AIR AND SCENE.

The advantages which attend "change of air," in the treat-



ment of various diseases, has been ascribed by many physicians to the exhilarating impressions thus produced upon the mind, and to the simultaneous change of habits which usually takes place upon such occasions. I am willing to admit the extensive and powerful operation of such causes in the treatment of diseases in general, but more particularly in those cases in which the digestive organs constitute the source of the derangement; for such affections are influenced by the state of the mind to an extent to which it would be difficult to assign a limit. It therefore follows, that in the recommendation of a place of resort for invalids, various circumstances are to be taken into consideration: it is no less important to furnish amusement for the mind, than to provide salubrious air and wholesome food for the body. A continual change of residence is, perhaps, better adapted for ensuring our object, than a protracted stay in any one place. The genial excitement which a succession of novelties produces on the mind, to say nothing of the advantages which necessarily arise from the exercise of the body, is more likely to ensure exhilaration and cheerfulness, and to break down the associations which continued disease will always engender, than a monotonous residence in a watering-place, where, after the first few days, the patient becomes familiarized with the objects around him, the spell by which he is to be cured is broken, and his mind is watching every pulsation, in order to discover some indication of that returning health which he so anxiously anticipates. This truth is beautifully illustrated by an anecdote related by Sydenham, and will go farther in establishing the importance of the principle I am desirous of enforcing, than any argument which it is in my power to adduce. This great physician having long attended a gentleman of fortune with little or no advantage, frankly avowed his inability to render him any farther service, adding, at the same time, that there was a physician of the name of Robinson, at Inverness, who had distinguished himself by the performance of many remarkable cures of the same complaint as that under which his patient laboured, and expressing a conviction that, if he applied to him, he would come back cured. This was too encouraging a proposal to be rejected: the gentleman received from Sydenham a statement of his case, with the necessary letter of introduction, and proceeded without delay to the place in question. On arriving at Inverness, and anxiously enquiring for the residence of Dr. Robinson, he found, to his utter dismay and disappointment, that there was no physician of that name in the place, nor ever had been in the memory of any person there. The gentleman returned, vowing eternal hostility against the peace of Sydenham;



and on his arrival at home, instantly expressed his indignation, in no very measured terms, at having been sent so many hundred miles for no purpose. "Well," replies Sydenham, "are you better in health?" "Yes; I am now perfectly well, but no thanks to you." "No!" says Sydenham, "but you may thank Dr. Robinson for curing you. I wished to send you a journey with some object of interest in view; I knew it would be of service to you: in going you had Dr. Robinson and his wonderful cures in contemplation, and in returning you were equally engaged in thinking of seolding me." There was more wisdom and address in such a scheme, than in that which is said to have been practised by Hippocrates, who sent his patients from Athens with no other object than to touch the walls of Megara, and then to return.

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#### TREATMENT OF NERVOUS HEADACHE.

Nervous headache is sometimes attended with symptoms so strongly indicative of compression of brain, from over-distention of blood-vessels, that it is often a very nice point to determine whether the complaint be purely nervous, or whether the brain is not disordered by a plethoric state of its blood-vessels. Giddiness, ringing in the ears, imperfect vision, confusion of mind, a sense of heaviness, nausea, and vomiting, are not only the consequences of compression of brain from over-distention of blood-vessels, but also of depletion. They precede the apoplectic fit from plethora, and also the fainting fit from the loss of blood. In nervous headache, the pupils are generally contracted, and in the headache from plethora, they are generally much dilated, often one more than the other; but in cases of *nervous* headache, when the cerebral system is in a state of *debility*, the pupils are also dilated. The pulse, in the nervous headache, is languid and small, and the extremities cold; but in the plethoric headache it is generally full, and the extremities warm: if, however, the brain be much compressed by the over-distended vessels, the pulse will be languid, and the skin cool. The nervous headache may be distinguished from the plethoric, by placing the head or body in a position which favours the afflux of blood to the brain, or checks its return from the brain. If in an horizontal position, or during stooping, or looking upwards or backwards when in an erect position, the giddiness or pulsation in the head be increased, the inference is, the blood-vessels of the head are overloaded, and the brain disturbed by compression or increased vascular action; but if they produce no aggravation of the leading symptoms, and espe-

cially if they afford relief, there can be no doubt of the complaint being nervous, and that the state of the blood-vessels has little to do with it. Some practitioners have asserted, that the nervous headache may be distinguished from the plethoric by a stimulus, as brandy or wine applied to the stomach; but when the plethoric state is merely local, that is, not dependant on general plethora, a cordial or stimulant applied to the stomach, by increasing the circulation in the bowels, will produce a diversion in favour of the overloaded brain. A bandage applied round the head (over the temples), affords great relief in the nervous headache, but in the plethoric produces confusion. Nervous subjects, especially those who are of a gouty habit, are very liable to attacks of cough, termed nervous cough, on unfavourable changes in the atmosphere, from irritation at the top of the windpipe, or in the part termed larynx; and from the continued tickling sensation at the upper part of the windpipe, it is often very distressing. The irritation soon gives way to the following mixture:—

Take of compound spirit of sulphuric ether, three drachms;  
tincture of colchicum seeds, two drachms;  
camphorated mixture, four ounces.—Mix.

One or two table-spoonfuls to be taken three times a day.

The inhalation of the vapour of ether, or of tar, also affords immediate relief.

Internal irritation, and especially when attended with pain or spasms, is generally considered by routine physicians as certain indications of the existence of inflammation. We have heard a judge, in summing up the evidence brought forward in a trial for mal-practice, emphatically observe, “there was evidently pain, and pain cannot take place without inflammation!” To constitute inflammation, preternatural distention of blood-vessels, and increased temperature of the part are necessary; but irritation and very painful spasms frequently occur in nervous subjects without any such attendants; indeed the part is often in an opposite state, and the irritation and pain are relieved by increasing the circulation and temperature in it, either by friction or warm fomentation. In nervous subjects, a cough, occasioned by inflammatory action, either in the inner membrane of the windpipe or in the lungs, will often continue after the cause has been entirely removed, and when indeed the membrane and lungs are in an opposite state; in which case nervous cordials and a generous diet generally succeed in quieting the disturbed nerves: this is often the case in hooping-cough of some weeks standing.

The observations we have made on the stomach, as the centre



of sympathy, point out the necessity of keeping that organ in a quiet state, in the nervous temperament. With this view, nervous subjects should be very particular in the choice of articles of diet. The peculiarities of the nervous habit are so very opposite, that the best advice a medical man can give to a nervous invalid is, to avoid those articles which evidently disagree with the stomach, and not to oppress or over-stimulate it with too great a quantity of those which do agree. So far as a general rule can be laid down, we should say, avoid all green vegetables in a raw state (as celery, water-cresses, lettuce, onions, cucumbers, radishes, melons, &c.), pickles, cheese, pastry, nuts, walnuts, sweetmeats, soups, broths, new potatoes, sweet ale, green tea, coffee, and all burnt articles, as English coffee, crust of bread, and outside of roasted meat.

The best article for breakfast is the sassafras cocoa, with sugar and milk, brown bread (not new), or sea biscuits with a little butter. The aromatic property of this cocoa promotes digestion, and prevents the accumulation of flatus in the stomach and intestines, a property which neither tea, common cocoa, chocolate, nor coffee possesses. For dinner, the interior of roasted or boiled mutton, beef, boiled or roasted fowl, lamb, partridge, hare, &c., with mashed potatoes, asparagus, green peas or cabbage, with pepper; and finish with an anchovy instead of cheese. With respect to beverage, he should take that which he finds to promote digestion; either diluted spirit or well fermented malt liquor. After dinner he may encourage a nap in the chair for a few minutes, provided he be drowsy, and finds himself refreshed by it. For supper he may take a basin of broth, or light bread pudding; and if malt liquor be necessary to quiet the system or dispose it to sleep, he may take with it an anchovy with some bread.

Generally speaking, three meals a day are sufficient for the nourishment or support of the body; but in nervous subjects, there is often such peculiarities of stomachs, that it is common for local nervous excitement to take place either in the head, heart, or bowels, when the stomach is not engaged, or when it is distended with gas. The determination of blood to the stomach, and increased energy of its nerves, which take place during digestion, often relieve violent nervous headache and other local nervous affections; and for this purpose it is common for nervous subjects to have recourse to frequent meals; and when they evidently quiet the system, allay local excessive action, and do not fatigue or oppress the stomach, they should be allowed. With respect to the frequency, quantity, and even quality of meals, a nervous patient should be as competent to judge as the most experienced physician.



A little exercise is necessary to keep up the functions of the viscera, and such should be preferred which pleasantly engages the mind, as travelling in countries which afford a variety of scenery and states of society; avoiding damp or marshy countries, the vapours of which are very apt to disturb the nervous system, particularly of gouty, rheumatic and asthmatic subjects. Sometimes local irritation runs so high as to render the use of an article of the class of remedies termed narcotics necessary. This class is very numerous, and like the class of purgatives, some of them appear to act more effectually in allaying irritation in one part of the body than in another. For instance, the extracts of hedge hyssop, of the garden lettuce, and of hemlock, and the Prussic acid, act more efficaciously in allaying irritation in the inner membrane of the windpipe and lungs, than any other anodyne; the tincture of foxglove *diminishes* the action of the heart, when morbidly excited, and *increases* that of the absorbent vessels—the colchicum allays irritation of membranes of the joints (rheumatic and gouty)—the aconite and henbane reduce excitement or irritation within the skull, and the deadly nightshade seems to act on the nerves of the face, and the buchu allays morbid irritation in the bladder and rectum. In some cases of local irritation, as of the stomach and pharynx, the topical application of a stimulant capable of blistering the skin of the surface of the body, as the capsicum, will allay it; and others, which sympathetically stimulate the brain on being taken into the stomach, as spirit of turpentine and gin, will allay irritation in the kidneys and bladder. A stimulating electuary, termed Ward's paste (the basis of which is black pepper) taken into the stomach, has been found to allay the irritation of piles; and an infusion of cayenne pepper is a popular gargle in Italy for inflammation of the tonsils. The local action of the different anodynes, and indeed every other class of remedies, although much influenced by peculiarity of constitution, is an important and highly interesting part of practical medicine.

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PRECEPTS FOR THE INVALID, IN RELATION TO QUANTITY AND QUALITY OF FOOD. BY DR. PARIS.

*On the Quality of Food.*

Animal food is more digestible, but at the same time more stimulant and less flatulent, than vegetable diet. A dyspeptic invalid may be restricted to meat and bread with advantage, until his digestive powers have gained sufficient energy to enable him to convert vegetable matter into healthy chyle, after which a due mixture of both species of aliment will be essential.

The wholesome quality of food depends as much, or even more, upon its mechanical condition, than upon its chemical

composition; and as this is influenced by various circumstances under our own controul, we may render food, naturally indigestible, of easy digestion. The digestibility of any species of aliment, as well as its nutritive qualities, are influenced by the different modes of cookery. The addition of condiments is also capable of producing the same effects. The practitioner will be enabled to direct that species of food, which is best calculated to fulfil the indications of the case, by an attentive perusal of those remarks which are introduced in the body of this work; and he will also find ample directions for his guidance in the selection of liquids for drink.

*On the Quantity of Food.*

This must, in every case, be regulated by the feelings of the patient: let him eat slowly, masticate thoroughly, and on the first feeling of satiety dismiss his plate, and he will not have occasion for any artificial standard of weight and measure; But he must, in such a case, restrict himself to one dish; an indulgence in variety provokes an artificial appetite, which he may not readily distinguish from that natural feeling which is the only true indication.

*On the Periods best adapted for Meals.*

I have, upon every occasion, endeavoured to impress upon the patient the high importance of these considerations. In every situation of life we too frequently pass, unheeded, objects of real importance, in an over-anxiety to pursue others of more apparent but of far less intrinsic value; so is it with the dyspeptic invalid in search of health. What shall I eat? Is this, or that species of food digestible? are the constant queries which he addresses to his physician. He will religiously abstain from whatever medical opinion, or even popular prejudice has decried as unwholesome; and yet the period at which he takes his meal is a matter of comparative indifference with him; although he will refuse to taste a dish that contains an atom of vinegar with as much pertinacity as if it held arsenic in solution, he will allow the most trifling engagement to postpone his dinner for an hour. So important and serious an error do I consider such irregularities, that I have frequently said to a patient labouring under indigestion, "I will waive all my objections to the quality and quantity of your food, if I were sure that such a sacrifice of opinion would ensure regularity in the periods of your meals."

The principal solid meal should be taken in the middle of the day.

Four hours after which a liquid meal should be indulged in.

The digestion of one meal should be always completed before fresh labour is imposed upon the stomach.



The intervals at which food is to be taken must be regulated by the digestive powers of the individual, and the rapidity with which they are performed.

The patient should never take his meal in a state of fatigue.

Exercise should always be taken three or four hours after dinner.

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#### ON THE EFFECTS OF SEVERAL MEDICINES AND THEIR PECULIAR OPERATION.

##### *Emetics.*

An emetic induces, even in the strongest, affections of the natural, vital, and animal functions, as a sense of languor, lassitude, weakness, tremors of the limbs and lips; diminished action of the heart and its remotest vessels, as appears from the small, weak, frequent, irregular pulse, paleness and shrinking of the surface, the cutis anserina, and from their effect on hæmorrhages and other discharges; difficult respiration, vertigo, rigors, a sense of weariness, weakness, or pain in the muscles of the back, partial sweating, anxiety at stomach, constriction of the mouth and fauces, salivation, expectoration, flowing of the bile, sickness, colic, vomiting; during which exertion the face and eyes become red, the veins turgid, the pulse strong, the sweat general, and the symptoms, which are those of intermittents and of all other stomachic, or what are called constitutional diseases, are relieved. The effects of emetics in incipient fever, phthisis, gout, inflamed testicle, certain dropsies, manias, and other diseases shew the influence of the stomach over every part of the system.

##### *Cathartics.*

In the continued identical structure from the gullet to the rectum, the state of one part is apt to affect that of another; so indigestion occasions flatulence, spasms and pains in the intestines, which are often relieved by a medicine on its reaching the stomach; a looseness occasionally relieves a vomiting, and a vomiting relieves a looseness; chewing or smoking tobacco will purge, and a tobacco-injection or glyster will produce all the symptoms of an emetic. A cathartic, though returned by vomiting, often purges, and a drastic has been known to purge severely, and to prove fatal, when, on dissection, the stomach only was found to be inflamed. Hoffmann mentions a woman in a tertian, who, having taken eight grains of glass of antimony, had violent vomiting and purging during three successive fits, but not in the intervals, that she died in the third fit; that,



on dissection, the stomach and upper intestines were found inflamed and covered with gangrenous spots, and that the antimony was retained in the villous coat of the stomach.

Most cathartics, like other matters, are decomposed before they pass the pylorus; those which pass seemingly unchanged, as sulphur, oxyd of mercury, cassia, and rhubarb, are in general gentle in their operation. Scammony and gamboge are apt to disorder the stomach peculiarly; hellebore occasions great anxiety, with a sense of suffocation; colocynth and resinous purgatives, as jalap, are apt to produce colic; aloes affects the rectum, and the effects of elaterium and iris palustris are felt at the extremities of the arterial system.

#### *Diuretics, Refrigerants, and Sudorifics.*

Diuretics, and mere liquids, sometimes excite urine so suddenly, that the ancients imagined a direct communication between the stomach and bladder. A retrograde motion in the lymphatics has been supposed, and ingeniously supported; but the flow appears to be often analogous to the sudden one of milk from the breasts of nurses, and other sudden secretions. Strangury is a constant symptom of gastritis; and affections of the urinary organs constantly affect the stomach. Digitalis, squill, tobacco, and most other diuretics are apt, like other nauseants, to be expectorant or sudorific, and if they be so in a considerable degree, or if they produce vomiting or purging early, they fail to induce that state of stomach which seems necessary to their diuretic operation. Two ounces of any neutral salt is apt to be emetic; an ounce or so, even of alum, to be cathartic; two or three drachms to be diuretic; a drachm to be refrigerant; and, in a warm temperature, sudorific.

Though our ideas of quantity be gross, yet it cannot be supposed that such minute doses of refrigerants, sudorifics, or antispasmodics, of nitre, an antimonial, ammonia, opium, or æther, can operate by going to every point and pore of the body. Alcohol and aromatics, as curry, heat in a cold temperature, and cool in a hot one. Cold water is apt to produce heat and sweating, warm water to produce cold and shivering. Ammonia, opium, aromatics, or alcohol induce heat in the cold fit, and diminish it in the hot fit of fever; an emetic or bark prevents both, and what are called refrigerants are apt to increase both.

#### *Tonics.*

Any nauseous matter, acid, or air in the stomach, or any disagreeable impression, or the absence of an accustomed one, is apt to induce that state of stomach in which its power over the muscles is diminished, and on which the sense of weakness de-

pend. Such impressions and states being removed, the balance between the stomach and muscles is restored; which removal has been called a tonic effect. Acids, astringents, bitters, aromatics, fetids, iron, zinc, copper, or arsenic may remove this state, and consequently its symptoms; as weakness, palsy, tremors, spasm, fever, inflammation, ulcer, gangrene, hæmorrhage and serous discharge, and have been called tonic.

The faulty state of stomach is not always attended with impaired appetite, which may be prurient, irregular, and even excessive; but that, in such cases, the stomach is not in a natural state is evident from the deficient assimilation in phthisis, bulimia, and some moribund cases; and from the morbid one, in chlorosis, worms, and sea-scurvy, in which last the citric-acid taken into the stomach, where it must be changed, seems to counteract the effect of salt meat, cold and moisture on the surface, excess or defect of exercise, and despondence, the usual causes of the disease. The sudden effects of small doses of aromatics, fetids, ammonia, alcohol, æther, or opium, in allaying the sense of weakness, heat, cold, sweating, spasm, pain, and other symptoms all over the body, with depressions of mind; and of the same medicines, and the bark in preventing and arresting ague-fits, show that such symptoms depend on states of stomach, and that these medicines act on the stomach, inducing changes in it, the effects of which are propagated over the system.

If fever, inflammatory and hæmorrhagic diseases, were affections merely of the heart and blood-vessels; nervous diseases of the brain and nerves; dropsy, and scrofula of the lymphatics; scirrhus of the other glands; ulcers of the skin; dyspnœa and cough of the lungs; rheumatism of the large joints, and gout of the small; jaundice of the ducts of the liver, and diabetes of the kidneys, these would oftener exist together; but being symptoms of states of stomach, and as different states of the same organ cannot exist at the same time, the system is thus not readily overpowered by a confluence of diseases; the same causes induce different symptoms according to predisposition; the same remedy answers in various morbid states, and it seems thus that the balance of secretions is established. How often, after death, are morbid states of brain, lungs, and heart, in vain looked for, while the cause of all the symptoms is either invisible or found in the stomach, which had not seemed previously to suffer.

#### *Narcotics.*

Narcotics seem to induce a state of stomach, which tends to supply the want of necessary impressions, or resist such as are



apt to occasion pain or prevent sleep, the natural relief and restorer of the sentient part. If a morbid impression exist, as from acid in the stomach, sordes in the bowels, or fulness in the vessels; or if it be of a mechanical or chemical nature in any other part, it must be removed; or if it be from a lacerated nerve, this must be divided, otherwise narcotics may not operate, or may even aggravate the symptoms. It is the state produced by the impression, as the painful state of nerve; muscular spasm; or local inflammation, as from bruises or wounds; ulcer; or disposition to gangrene, as in the toes, that narcotics and medicines used in such cases affect, and that only by keeping the assimilating and resisting powers, and thereby the other functions in a proper state, till the morbid impression lose its power, and the morbid state, disposition, and habit cease.

While every part continues under the dominion of the stomach, no mechanical or chemical change of a morbid nature can take place in the solids or fluids of the system; and from the natural accommodation between the stomach and other parts constantly tending to a level, and forming an equally, though sometimes slenderly, balanced constitution, morbid impressions are often resisted, local complaints arising in the course of disease become tolerable, and changes and extremes of the ordinary impressions, which are all first felt at the stomach, can be borne in a remarkable degree; but when the balance between the stomach and other parts, by means of internal or external impressions, or evacuations, is diminished or lost, as in broken constitution, a slight change in ordinary, morbid, or salutary impressions, is felt.

The stomach may be put into a state more or less susceptible of a particular impression. Mercury, whether administered internally or externally, seems to render it more sensible to that of the bark in ague, of squill in dropsy, of opium in syphilis, and of electricity in various diseases. In mania the stomach and system are generally very insensible to impressions; but opium given an hour or two before even an ordinary dose of an emetic, promotes its operation, though in a combined state, as in Dover's Powder, their specific effects are usually diminished. In mania, reason is generally observed to return in proportion to this sensibility of the stomach.

Impressions differ not only in kind, but in degree, and are powerful, being less resisted, as they are sudden. Strong ones as emetics, warm water, &c. act chiefly on the stomach, while weak ones, such as do not even nauseate, and have little sensible quality, as small doses of emetics, warm water, absorbents, sarsaparilla, entire mustard-seed, and oxyds, affect the remotest



parts, and are much used in indigestion, nervous diseases, passive discharges, and ulcers. A remedy or dose to the unaccustomed, operates like an unexpected blow or event, with proportional force; a strong impression on the surface affects the part chiefly, while tickling, a scratch, dentition, a transplanted tooth, and other seemingly weak but peculiar impressions, affect the stomach and system considerably.

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DR. JOHNSON ON THE MORBID SENSIBILITY OF THE STOMACH AND BOWELS.

We resume our extracts from the second part of Dr. Johnson's pamphlet, passing over the introductory part, which would be compelling our readers to listen to a twice-told tale, and come at once to the treatment, (not the medicinal) which the doctor considers he is eminently qualified for, having been himself a martyr to dyspepsia, and all its horrors.

The pains which I have taken to investigate the causes and the nature of the class of diseases which has passed under review will greatly abridge what I have to say as to the treatment. The real and efficient remedies are very few in number, and in this respect, they form a striking contrast with the innumerable forms and phenomena of the disease for which they are prescribed. Speaking generally, I verily believe there is more harm than good done by the farrago of medicines which are thrown into the stomach of a dyspeptic patient, at a time, too, when that organ will scarcely digest the lightest food.

I think I have proved that, whether there be ostensible disorder of the digestive function, or only the manifestation of morbid sympathies at a distance, or both at the same time, there is a morbid sensibility of the gastric and intestinal nerves; and hence, the first and most important indication is to lessen that sensibility, by withdrawing the causes of irritation, and applying such remedies as have the effect of diminishing irritability. If the sources of irritation could be completely withdrawn, Nature would generally effect a cure, without the assistance of medicine. But as these are sometimes of a moral, as well as a physical nature, we have but little power over the former, and are, therefore, only able to mitigate the symptoms. As it is on the regulation of diet, that our chief hopes of cure must rest, and as the system which I must insist on is rather rigid, I have endeavoured to shew the reason why this apparently severe discipline is absolutely necessary in order to stimulate the practitioner to fearlessly prescribe, and the patient to implicitly adopt it.

There is a great error committed every day, in flying to

medicine at once, when the functions of the stomach and liver are disordered—the secretions unnatural—and the food imperfectly digested. Instead of exhibiting purgatives day after day to carry off diseased secretions, we should lessen and simplify the food, in order to prevent the formation of these bad secretions. In doing this we have great prejudices to overcome. The patient feels himself getting weaker and thinner—and he looks to nourishing food and tonics for a cure. But he will generally be disappointed in the end by this plan. From four ounces of gruel every six hours, he will, under many states of indigestion, derive more nutriment and strength than from half a pound of animal food and a pint of wine. Whenever he feels any additional uneasiness or discomfort in mind or in body after eating, he has erred in the quantity or quality of his food, however restricted the one, or select the other. If the food and drink irritate the nerves of the stomach, it must be reduced and simplified, down even to the gruel diet above alluded to. I have known dyspeptic patients gain flesh and strength on half a pint of good gruel thrice in the twenty-four hours, and gradually bring the stomach, step by step, up to the point of digesting plain animal food and biscuit. On six ounces of animal food, a biscuit, and a glass of water, I have known invalids dine for months in succession, and attain, on this regimen, a degree of strength and a serenity of mind beyond their most sanguine hopes. In all or any of the various forms of dyspepsia which have been described, then, the diet is the first thing to be regulated. But it is quite preposterous to prescribe a certain quantity, or even quality of food and drink, till the power of the digestive organs is ascertained. I have repeatedly pointed out the criteria by which the patient, as well as the practitioner, may easily determine this important point. I care not if the dyspeptic invalid begins with a pound of beef-steaks, and a bottle of Port wine for his dinner. If he feel as comfortable at the end of two, four, six, eight, or twelve hours after this repast, as he did between breakfast and dinner of the preceding day, he had better continue his regimen, and throw physic to the dogs. But if, a few hours after his dinner, he feel a sense of distention in the stomach and bowels, or any of those symptoms of indigestion which have been pointed out—if he feel a languor of body, or a cloudiness of the mind—if he have a restless night—if he experience a depression of spirits, or irritability of temper next morning, his repast has been too much, or improper in kind, and he must reduce and simplify till he come to that quantity and quality of food and drink for dinner, which will produce little or no alteration in his feelings, whether of exhilaration *immediately* after dinner, or of discomfort *some*



hours after this meal. This is the criterion by which the patient must judge for himself. The scale of diet must be lowered and simplified down to water gruel, if necessary; otherwise a cure can never be expected. Speaking generally, the dyspeptic invalid may commence the trial with from four to eight ounces of plain and tender animal food, with stale bread, and few or no vegetables, at two o'clock, or as near that hour as possible, drinking, after the meal, a table-spoonful of brandy to two or three wine-glassfuls of water. If, after this, he feels light, and rather inclined to exercise or amusement than to take a nap on the sofa, he has hit the point—and to that system he should rigidly adhere. If he feel oppressed in body, or discomfited in mind, he must reduce the quantity gradually—if he feel a sense of emptiness or faintness, he must increase the quantity of his food—but this will very seldom be necessary. If the weak brandy and water cannot be taken, sherry and water, (a wine-glassful to the tumbler) may be allowed; but it is not so salutary as the former. Every thing that is taken beyond this, at dinner, is at the patient's own peril—and if he prefer wretched health of body and mind to the momentary gratification of sensual indulgence at table, let not the physician give his sanction to such self-destruction. I have distinctly said that the invalid may eat and drink as much as he pleases—provided he experience no *increase* of his morbid feelings from food and drink, within the twenty-four succeeding hours. If he *do* feel an increase of these, the necessity of the restriction which I propose is self-evident, and so far from being the imposition of a penance, it is, in reality, the removal of one. Let it be remembered that I am speaking of the dyspeptic stomach, and not of that which is in the enjoyment of all its healthy powers, and of all its natural sensibilities. But the invalid may ask—"Can I not have my ailments removed without abridging my appetites?" No! And the practitioner, who undertakes the treatment under such conditions, betrays either a want of principle or a want of judgment.

Well, then, the patient adopts such a simple and abstemious plan of diet that he feels no augmentation of his sufferings after food; but still he is far from well. He escapes those periodical *aggravations* of his complaint, but the medium ratio remains as before. There must be time for all things. Effects do not always cease when their causes are removed. It may have taken a long application of noxious agents to produce the morbid sensibility of the nerves, and it will require some time to reinstate them in their natural tone of feeling. Besides, the causes that originally produced the disorder may have been of a moral nature, and may still continue to operate. In this case we can



only prevent the aggravation by improper diet, and mitigate the symptoms by proper remedies. The rest must be left to time, and to moral means.

Although there is much peculiarity of disposition, in regard to diet, observable in different individuals, and therefore some latitude to be allowed on this account; yet experience has shewn that, however the proper *quantity* of food may differ in different constitutions, there is one broad rule as to *quality*, which is seldom inapplicable to one in a hundred dyspeptics.

The least irritating, and the most easily digested aliment is unquestionably farinaceous food, at the head of which we may place good grit gruel. I have known many who could digest only this, without unpleasant sensations in the stomach or other part of the body. When such is the case, the nerves of the stomach are in a high degree of morbid sensibility, and great caution should be taken not to irritate them by attempts at more nutritious food. No person is in danger of starvation who can take a pint—nay, only half a pint of good gruel in the twenty-four hours. Arrow-root, sago, tapioca, rice, salep, are all in the same class; but few of them will bear repetition so well as gruel. A little sugar, and a tea-spoonful of brandy in each cup of the gruel may be permitted; but the brandy may be safely dispensed with in general.

When the nerves have been kept free from irritation for a certain time by this mild regimen—when the tongue cleans—the sleep becomes more refreshing—and the intellectual feelings and functions more tranquil; beef-tea may be mixed with the gruel—then half an ounce or an ounce of chicken ventured on, and gradually increased. Whenever any uneasy sensations, of mind or body, occur, within the twenty-four hours after this trial of animal aliment, it should be decreased; or, if that will not do, wholly omitted, and the farinaceous food resumed. If no bad effects follow, the quantity of chicken may be progressively increased to six or eight ounces, with stale bread—but not too much of that. No particle of any other vegetable matter should yet be ventured on. While the farinaceous regimen is necessary, no drink should be taken, unless thirst be urgent, when barley water or toast and water in small quantity may be allowed. When the chicken can be borne, the drink should vary in quantity, according to the feelings of thirst, and the number of ounces of the animal diet which can be tolerated. Thus, if the patient cannot take more than an ounce of animal aliment, a wine-glassful of water, with a tea-spoonful of brandy in it, is as much as should be taken after the repast, unless thirst should urge, when some toast and water without brandy may be

taken. If eight ounces of chicken can be borne with impunity, a tumbler of water, with a table-spoonful of brandy, is a fair allowance.

From poultry, the dyspeptic should cautiously ascend to mutton or game—dressed in the simplest manner, and still with stale bread or biscuit. I would strongly advise that the *quantity* should never exceed half a pound in weight, even when that can be borne without a single unpleasant sensation succeeding. It is quite enough, and generally too much. The invalid will acquire a degree of strength and firmness, not fulness, of muscle on this quantity, which will, in time, surprise his friends, as well as himself. When arrived at the power of *digesting* six or eight ounces of mutton, he may vary the kind of animal matter considerably. Lamb, hare, tender beef, tripe—nay, venison may be taken, provided the golden rule be observed of always keeping to that *quantity* which produces *no languor after eating—no unpleasant sensation of mind or body during digestion*. I cannot urge this rule too strenuously on dyspeptics! Their happiness—perhaps their welfare—and the happiness and welfare of many who are connected with them, depend on its strict observance.

It is needless to dwell on the endless catalogue of *improper dishes*. All are improper for the dyspeptic, or at least *dangerous*, that are not included in the above. Even a mealy potatoe will often irritate the nerves of the stomach (without any perceptible sensation *there*) and pass undigested, after producing a great deal of wretched feeling in distant parts of the body. The same may be said of every kind of fruit and vegetable. There is such a tendency to form acidity in the weak and irritable stomach—vegetable matters are so prone to acidify—and acid is so peculiarly offensive to the morbidly sensible nerves of the *primæ viæ*, that the dyspeptic invalid cannot be too much on his guard against fruit and vegetables of every description, however innocent they may seem to be, as connected with disagreeable feelings in the stomach itself. As for cheese, pickles, nuts, onions, and a variety of provocatives, they are rank poison in dyspepsia, and as such should be religiously avoided.

In respect to drink, my firm conviction is that water is the best; and till the habit of water-drinking can be acquired, the dilute mixture of brandy and water is the next best beverage. Still I have no objection to a glass or two of sherry, under the guidance of the criteria which I have so often laid down. The sooner, however, that every species of stimulating drink can be laid aside the better. A cup of coffee after dinner is far preferable to wine. Malt liquors are quite out of the question.



The other meals are of some consequence to be attended to by the dyspeptic invalid. In the morning, if the nervous irritability is not in the highest degree, (necessitating the use of gruel) coffee or Bohea tea, with well toasted bread, cold, and very little butter—or what is better, a little cold meat, may be taken—and nothing more till dinner, if at two o'clock. Where tyrant custom compels to dine late, a slice of cold meat and biscuit should be taken at one o'clock. The tea should be the same as the breakfast, but without animal food :—and a cup of gruel is the best supper. Where farinaceous food can be relished for breakfast, it is certainly better than tea; and the milk or cream should be sparingly used.

By adherence to the foregoing plan, varying the quantity according to the feelings subsequently experienced, the surest foundation is laid, not only for health, but for happiness. Upon a regimen of this kind, the body will be brought to the greatest degree of permanent muscular strength, of which the individual constitution is susceptible—and the intellectual powers will be raised in proportion. Equanimity of mind will be attained, if attainable at all; and where moral causes of irritation or affliction cannot be avoided, they will be greatly neutralized. Under such a system of diet, the corporeal frame will be rendered more capable of undergoing fatigue—and the mind more able to resist misfortune, than by the richest dishes and most luxurious wines.

The rigid system which I have proposed is not the creature of speculation, engendered in the closet. It is that which many, to my knowledge, have adopted with the most perfect success—it is that by which I have conquered the most intense degree of dyspepsia in my own person. Those who have courage and perseverance to reap the fruits of such a system will hardly be induced to change it, however strongly they may be tempted by the luxuries of the table, and the seductions of convivial society. It would be well for those in the enjoyment of present health, if they employed it as a preservative of that invaluable blessing! But this I do not expect. I am addressing those who have tasted the bitter cup of sickness—and especially those who have experienced the horrors of dyspepsia. The latter alone can appreciate the luxury of immunity from the terrible feelings of mind and body engendered by that worst of human afflictions.

When a man has escaped the miseries of dyspeptic feelings, and brought the sensibilities of his stomach to a natural state, by great attention to diet, he should be careful how he deviates from the rigid regimen by which he was restored to health. Nothing is so liable to relapse as dyspepsia—and indulgence in



variety of dishes, or vegetables and fruit, will be almost certain of making the individual pay dear for the experiment. But it is of still more importance to keep a low *quantity* of food. The least over-exertion of the stomach in mastering a larger proportion than it can easily digest, will be sure to re-kindle the morbid sympathies of the body, and the wretched feelings of the mind.

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#### INDIAN METHOD OF CURING HEADACHE.

“I am indebted to a respectable lady for the following most interesting account of a mode practised in the East Indies for the cure of headaches,” says Sir John Sinclair.

A native doctor attached to Colonel Allan Macpherson’s battalion of Sepoys, on the Bengal Establishment, had cured several gentlemen who belonged to the suite and escort of the late Colonel Upton, Ambassador from the Supreme Government of India, to the Court of Poona, of severe headaches.

After the return of the escort, this circumstance having been reported to a lady in Calcutta, who was affected with headache of so violent and excruciating a nature, that the most serious consequences were apprehended, she was induced to permit the native doctor to apply his remedy. He desired that she should recline herself across a bed, with her head over, so that it was lower than the side of the bed. He then applied a little cotton to the mouth of a small phial, containing a liquor of a tint somewhat resembling the colour of lemon juice. The cotton having been thus wetted, he squeezed three or four drops of this liquid into each nostril. After remaining in this posture a few seconds he asked her how she felt; and upon being informed that she had an inclination to sneeze, he desired her to raise her head, which was no sooner done, than a torrent of clear water rushed from her nostrils, and from her mouth and eyes, into a bason, in greater quantity than she would venture to state, but certainly not less than might suffice to wash the hands. Her headache never returned. The only injunction the doctor gave was, that she should avoid animal food, and beware of catching cold for a few days. Her husband was present when this cure was effected, and underwent the same experiment soon afterwards for headache less severe, and with the like effect, excepting that the discharge from the head was less copious. All the entreaties that could be used to procure the receipt was ineffectual.

It is to be hoped that every exertion will be made, in every part of India, to ascertain the nature of this application, and in what cases it is useful, (for the knowledge of it was not probably confined to this individual doctor, who is since dead), and of

every other means of curing diseases and accidents, which can be discovered in that extensive country. If the plants used were known, our own physicians would soon discover the proper mode of application. It cannot be doubted that a vast fund of information relative to the uses and qualities of plants, and other articles employed in various disorders, may be found in the East.

The late Dr. Valangin used frequently to cure headaches, by desiring the patient to snuff up a mixture of the yellow oxyde of mercury, (formerly called Turbeth mineral,) with a little sugar. It often produces a prodigious discharge of serous fluid from the nose, without sneezing. Doctor Buchan, has also often cured obstinate complaints in the head by the same means. Turbeth mineral is of a very bright yellow colour, and it is possible that a solution of it may be the Indian remedy.

One circumstance to be attended to in regard to popular cures in general is, that there are great varieties of the same disease; and that what may answer in one species, may not succeed in another. The shades of difference, which, though minute, are often important, can only be distinguished by the experienced physician, to whom all the usual disorders of the human frame are familiar. It is extremely desirable, therefore, in every case where a cure is effected, that not only the remedy, but all the circumstances of the case, should be described with as much accuracy as possible.

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#### TO MAKE SPIRITUOUS TINCTURES OR INFUSIONS.

Rectified spirit of wine is the direct menstruum of the resins and essential oils of vegetables, and totally extracts these active principles from sundry vegetable matters, which yield them to water either not at all, or only in part.

It dissolves likewise the sweet saccharine matter of vegetable, and generally those parts of animal bodies, in which their peculiar smells and tastes reside.

The virtues of many vegetables are extracted almost equally by water and rectified spirit; but in the watery and spirituous tinctures of them there is this difference, that the active parts, in the watery extractions, are blended with a large proportion of inert gummy matter, on which their solubility in this menstruum in a great measure depends, while rectified spirit extracts them almost pure from gum. Hence, when the spirituous tinctures are mixed with watery liquors, a part of what the spirit had taken up from the subject generally separates and subsides, on account of its having been freed from that matter, which,



being blended with it in the original vegetable, made it soluble in water. This, however, is not universal; for the active parts of some vegetables, when extracted by rectified spirit, are not precipitated by water, being almost equally dissoluble in both menstrea.

Rectified spirit may be tinged by vegetables of all colours, except blue. The leaves of plants in general, which give out but little of their natural colour to watery liquors, communicate to the spirit the whole of their green tincture, which, for the most part, proves elegant, though not very durable.

*General Rules for extracting Tinctures.*

1. The vegetable substances ought to be moderately and newly dried, unless they are expressly ordered otherwise. They should likewise be cut and bruised before the menstruum is poured on them.

2. If the digestion be performed in balneo, the whole success depends upon a proper management of the fire; it ought to be all along gentle, unless the hard texture of the subject should require it to be augmented; in which case, the heat may be increased so as to make the menstruum boil a little towards the end of the process.

3. Very large circulatory vessels ought to be employed for this purpose, which should be heated before they are luted together. Circulatory vessels are those which are so contrived, and of such a height, that the vapour which arises during the digestion may be cooled and condensed in the upper part, and fall down again into the liquor below; by these means, the dissipation both of the spirit and of the volatile parts of the ingredients is prevented. They are generally composed of two long-necked matrasses, or bolt-heads; the mouth of one of which is to be inserted into that of the other, and the juncture secured by a piece of wet bladder.

The use of heating the vessels is to expel a part of the air, which otherwise, rarefying in the process, would endanger bursting them, or blowing off the uppermost matrass. A single matrass with a long neck, or with a glass pipe inserted into its mouth, is more commodious than the double vessel.

4. The vessel is to be frequently shaken during the digestion.

5. All tinctures should be suffered to settle before they are committed either to the filter or strainer.

6. In the tinctures (and distilled spirits likewise) designed for internal use, no other spirit, drawn from malt, molasses, or other fermented matter, is to be used, than that expressly prescribed.



ON THE USE OF PROPER FOOD.—MODERATION IN EATING AND DRINKING.—PRESERVATION OF THE TEETH, &c. BY PROFESSOR HUFELAND.

The idea of *proper regimen* is somewhat relative. In general, we find that those men who were not too nice or particular in regard to their food, but who lived sparingly, attained to the greatest age; and it is an advantage peculiar to man, that he can digest and assimilate the most heterogeneous kinds of nourishment, and is not, like other animals, confined to one certain class. It is proved that people in a natural state, who are much exposed to the free open air and to exercise, require few rules respecting their diet. It was our artificial manner of living that first rendered regimen necessary.

It is at any rate certain, that the prolongation of life does not so much depend on the quality, as on the quantity, of our nourishment; and the instance of Cornaro and many others, affords an astonishing proof how far a man of a weakly constitution may thereby prolong his existence.

It may with truth be asserted, that the greater part of mankind eat more than is necessary; and, by being crammed and overfed in infancy, we are deprived of that natural sensation which ought to tell us when we have enough.

I shall here only give such common rules in regard to eating and drinking as will suit the generality of mankind; and which, I am convinced, will have an essential influence in prolonging life.

1st. It is not what we eat, but what we digest, that does us good, and serves to nourish our bodies.—He who wishes to live long ought, therefore, to eat slowly; as our food must obtain in the mouth the first degree of preparation and assimilation. This is effected by its being sufficiently chewed and mixed with saliva; both which I consider as a principal part of the business of restoration, and consequently set great value upon it in regard to the prolongation of life, especially as it appears by my researches that all those who were accustomed to eat slowly attained to a great age.

Much must therefore depend on good teeth; and I can with propriety reckon preservation of the teeth among those means that tend to prolong life. By the following rules, if observed from infancy, the teeth may be preserved fast and sound to the greatest age.

One must always join with the flesh used for food a sufficient quantity of vegetables and bread; for flesh adheres more readily

between the teeth, and tends to rot and destroy them. It will be found, therefore, that those who use little or no flesh, boors and country people, have always the best teeth, though they never clean them. But no tooth-powder can be more efficacious than a piece of dry burnt bread; and it is a custom very salutary for the teeth, to chew slowly a crust of bread after every meal.

Avoid exposing the teeth to a sudden transition from heat to cold, or the contrary; for the teeth are covered with a glassy kind of enamel, which may be easily cracked by sudden changes; so that corrupted particles can insinuate themselves into the rents, and lay the first foundation of putrefaction within them. It will be best, therefore, never to take too hot or too cold things into the mouth; and to be careful, above all, not to drink cold liquor while you are eating warm food, such as hot soup, &c.

Never eat sugar; and avoid confections, which are mixed with a great deal of tough calcareous particles.

As soon as you observe that a tooth is decayed, have it immediately pulled out, otherwise it will infect the rest.

Wash your teeth with water every morning, and in particular after each meal. This will remove any remains of food adhering to them, which commonly fix themselves between the teeth, and lay the first ground for corruption.

Those who observe these rules will seldom have occasion for tooth-powder. But if the teeth have a tendency, as is the case naturally in some men, to become foul, or to acquire what is called tartar. I recommend the following harmless prescription:

*Preservative Powder for the Teeth.*

Take half an ounce of red sandal wood  
with a quarter of an ounce of China root,  
reduce them to a fine powder, and sift it through a hair-  
sieve.

Then add to it six drops of the oil of cloves,  
and the same quantity of bergamot oil,  
and rub the teeth with it in the morning.

3d. Beware of studying, reading, or straining the head while at table. That period must certainly be consecrated to the stomach. It is the time of its government; and the mind must no farther interfere with it than may be necessary to assist its operations. Laughter is one of the greatest helps to digestion with which I am acquainted; and the custom prevalent among our forefathers, of exciting it at table by jesters and buffoons, was founded on true medical principles.—In a word, endeavour to have cheerful and merry companions at your meals. What

nourishment one receives amidst mirth and jollity, will certainly produce good and light blood.

4th. Do not expose yourself to violent motion after meals ; for this will disturb, in an astonishing degree, the digestion and assimilation of your nourishment. It will be best to stand, or to walk about slowly. The most proper time for exercise is before meals, or three hours after.

5th. Never eat so much that you feel you have a stomach. It will be best, to give over before you are completely sated. The quantity of food must be always proportioned to one's bodily labour ; the less the labour, the less ought to be the nourishment.

6th. In the choice of food, one should incline more to vegetables. Flesh has always a greater tendency to putrefaction ; and vegetables, on the other hand, to acidity, which corrects putrefaction, our continual and greatest enemy. Besides, animal food is always of a more heating and stimulating nature ; whereas vegetables produce cool, mild, blood—lessen the internal motion, mental as well as bodily irritability—and powerfully retard vital consumption. Lastly, animal food yields more blood and nourishment ; and requires, in order to be beneficial to us, much more labour and bodily motion ; and by the use of it, one also is liable to become plethoric. On this account it is not proper for men of letters, and those who sit a great deal ; as such people do not require so strong restoration, or so much addition of substance, but only of those fine nourishing juices that are necessary for the spiritual functions. One ought, above all, to avoid flesh in Summer, and when putrid fevers are prevalent. We find that it is not those who lived on flesh, but on vegetables, pulse, fruit, and milk, who attained to the greatest age.—Lord Bacon mentions a man of 120, who, during his whole life, never used any other food than milk. The Bramins, by their religion, are confined merely to vegetables ; and, for the most part, live to the age of 100. John Wesley, in the middle of his life, gave over the use of flesh ; lived upon vegetables alone, and attained to the age of eighty-eight.

7th. At night, one ought to eat sparingly, and to use little or no flesh—if cold it will be best : and to sup a few hours before bed-time.

8th. Never neglect to use a sufficient quantity of drink. It too often happens that people, by inattention to the calls of Nature, forget drinking altogether, and are no longer reminded of it ; which is the grand cause of aridity, obstructions in the lower belly, and a multitude of diseases to be found so frequently among men of letters, and females, who lead a sedentary life.



But it is to be observed, that the best time for drinking is not while one is eating, as the gastric juices are thereby rendered too thin, and the stomach weakened—but about an hour after meals.

The best drink is water, a liquor commonly despised, and even considered as prejudicial.—I will not hesitate, however, to declare it to be one of the greatest means for prolonging life. Read what is said of it by that respectable veteran, Mr. Theden, surgeon-general, who ascribes his long life of more than eighty years chiefly to the daily use of seven or eight quarts (from twenty to twenty-four pounds) of fresh water, which he drank for upwards of forty years. Between his thirtieth and fortieth year he was a most miserable hypochondriac, oppressed with the deepest melancholy; tormented with a palpitation of the heart, indigestion, &c.; and imagined that he could not live six months. But from the time that he began this water regimen, all these symptoms disappeared; and, in the latter half of his life, he enjoyed better health than before, and was perfectly free from the hypochondriac affection. One great point, however, is, that the water must be fresh, that is, recently drawn from a spring or running stream, and be put into a vessel well stopped; for all spring water, like the mineral, contains fixed air, which renders it strengthening and favourable to digestion.—Pure, fresh water has the following advantages, which certainly must inspire us with respect for it:—

The element of water is the greatest and only promoter of digestion;—by its coldness and fixed air it is an excellent strengthener and reviver of the stomach and nerves. On account of its abundance of fixed air, and the saline particles it contains, it is a powerful preventive of bile and putrefaction. It assists all the secretions of the body. Without water there could be no excretion.—As, according to the latest experiment, oxygen is a component part of it, by drinking water we actually imbibe a new stimulus of life.

I cannot here omit to say something in favour of soups, (liquid nourishment,) since it has been lately fashionable to deery them as prejudicial.

The moderate use of soups is certainly not hurtful; and it is singular that people should imagine that it tends too much to relax the stomach. Does not all our drink, even though cold, become in a few minutes a kind of warm soup in the stomach; and does not the stomach retain the same temperature during the whole day? Be careful only not to use it hot, in too great quantity at one time, or too watery, and it is attended even with great advantages. It supplies the place of drink, particularly to men of letters, women, and all those who do not drink, or drink

very little except at table, and who, when they give over soup, receive into their blood too little moisture. And it is here to be remarked, that fluids used in the form of soup unite much better and sooner with our juices than when drank cold and raw. On this account soup is a great preventive of dryness and rigidity in the body, and therefore the best nourishment for old people and those who are of a dry temperament. It even supplies the place of medicine. After catching cold, in nervous headaches, colics, and different kinds of cramp in the stomach, warm soup is of excellent service. It may serve as a proof of the utility, or at least harmlessness of soup, when I remark that our forefathers, who certainly had more strength than we have, used soup; that it is used by rustics, who are still stronger than those in refined life; and that all the old people with whom I ever was acquainted were great friends to it.

Wine rejoices the heart of man, but it is by no means necessary for long life, since those who never drank it seem to have become oldest. Nay, as a stimulant, which accelerates vital consumption, it may tend very much to shorten life, when used too frequently, or in too great abundance. To render it friendly and not prejudicial to life, it must be drank daily, but always in moderation: the younger a man is in less, and the older, in the greater quantity. It is best when one considers and uses wine as the seasoning of life, and reserves it for days of mirth and recreation to enliven the friendly circle.

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#### THE FRENCH HOSPITALS.

By far the greatest number of the Parisian hospitals are supported by the government; and even those which were originally private foundations, as the hospitals Beaujon, Necker, and Cochin, are, with the former, submitted to the superintendence of the "*Administration generale*," of the civil hospitals and infirmaries.

The patients who wish to get admitted into any of these institutions apply to the Bureau central, which is situated just in front of the entrance to the Hôtel Dieu, in the parvis Notre Dame. At this Bureau certain physicians and surgeons attend to examine the patients, to send those whose cases require to the hospitals, and to give advice, support, trusses, &c. to such as may not be ill enough to go to a hospital. Assistance is given in this manner to from 10 to 11,000 persons in the course of the year.

In general, the hospitals of Paris are clean and well managed, for which they are not a little indebted to the *Sisters of la Cha-*

rité, and females of other religious orders, who devote themselves to the care of the sick, and “watch over the interests of the charity.” Notwithstanding all this, they are not to be compared with our hospitals, either in point of ventilation, elegance or cleanliness. The tiles of which the flooring of some hospitals is composed, give a sombre appearance to the wards, which at the same time are frequently badly lighted, and almost always irregularly built.

The division of the patients into particular classes, according to their diseases, and the sending of these classes to particular hospitals, is a point in the administration which differs essentially from that adopted in the hospitals of London, where, far from admitting only certain classes of diseases into certain hospitals, each ward of a hospital is made to receive medical and surgical cases of all kinds and in all stages, so that it is not unusual to see a case of gangrene in the next bed to a patient with fever, and to hear the incessant prattle of the delirious, or the barking cough of the consumptive, disturbing day and night the surrounding patients suffering from painful chronic diseases. The hospitals here are much better regulated: they have their *Salles de Medicine* and their *Salles de Chirurgie*, and the most dominant forms of disease are placed under the care and treatment of the same individuals. In London, the Lock and Fever hospitals, the Cancer ward of the Middlesex, and the foul wards of the large hospitals, are almost the only examples we can find of a similar practice.

No doubt can exist as to the propriety of placing surgical and medical patients, and subdivisions of these, into separate wards; and it is a disgrace to our hospitals, and their officers, that they have not adopted such an arrangement; but it is not quite so certain that in all cases the same advantage results from the distribution of particular diseases to particular hospitals. It is very commendable in the diseases of children, since they require particular nursing and diet, and their incapacity of accurately expressing their wants, requires that they should have persons as nurses who are acquainted, by habit and observation, with their expressive but inarticulate language.

#### *The Hospital Visit.*

At the principal hospitals the visits are made at an early hour; in Summer at six or seven, and in Winter at eight or nine. The visit occupies about an hour, and after the visit is the clinical lecture. By this arrangement both pupils and teachers are allowed the more active parts of the day to their other occupations. The following is generally the routine:—

The surgeon enters the ward, surrounded by the pupils, and



having tied on his white linen apron, he proceeds to call over the list of the *Elèves*, whose duty it is to be then present. The *Elèves* having answered, the business commences. The directing officer has two sheets of paper, on which the *Elèves* mark in the one the dietetic, and in the other the medical orders for the day. The visit to each patient is generally performed in a very slight and superficial manner; the questions are very loosely put, and follow each other in great rapidity. The number of the patient's bed is called out; the physician or surgeon then reports to the *Elèves* carrying the papers, what alteration he wishes to have made in the diet or medicine, and the procession moves on.

It is impossible to go through the wards without being struck with the inert measures generally used; the treatment is passive and dietetic, and that in a degree bordering on the ridiculous; whereas the English practitioners treat their patients with great activity, and perhaps verge to the opposite extreme. Who can go through a single ward of a hospital in Paris, without hearing such prescriptions as *petit-lait*, *eau d'orge*, *decoction blanche*, *potion anodyne*, *tisane de bourrache*, *de chiendent*, *bains*, and a half score others of the same sort sounded at the bed side of every second or third patient; the most potential command amounts to the application of six *sangsues*, or a bleeding of four ounces. The preparations just named, with the addition of a few grains of nitre or sal ammoniac, make up the entire *materia medica* of many. Ask a physician, either in or out of the hospital, how he is treating a given form of internal disease, and his answer will generally be, "*avec des rafraichissants*," "*des delayants*;" and it is in this mild and almost vegetable negative treatment, that they are content to continue and incur the well deserved censure of the practitioners of neighboring countries. What was once said by a writer in the *Edinburgh Review*, still holds good as regards the practice of the French, namely, that "the English *kill* their patients, whilst the French *allow them to die*." Metallic preparations are very rarely used; and calomel, the *sine qua non* of the English practitioners, is seldom heard of. It is but just, however, to observe, that there are many honourable exceptions to this general slovenliness of treatment among the Parisian practitioners.

A peculiarity in the management of the large hospitals, is the changing of the physicians every two or three months. In the *Hôtel Dieu*, for example, where there are several physicians appointed, the change is made every two months, so that one often sees the very opposite doctrines and treatment adopted in the same hospital in a very short time. A blood-letting disciple of

Broussais leaves to day, and is succeeded to-morrow by a stanch hæmatophobist, who loudly abuses the searching for smothered inflammations, and vigorously doses his patients with diaphoretics, valerian, and angelica.

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### THE TREATMENT OF SCROFULA.

Scrofula, like every other disease, has its stages. In the first stage it is decidedly a disease of increased action. The local affections are inflammatory, and they have a peculiar character, probably in consequence of being confined to the lymphatic glands and vessels. After suppuration has taken place, or the disease has arrived to its last stage, the circulation generally becomes languid, the skin pale, and the stomach of course partakes of the general debility of the body; hence powerful and indeed *stimulating* tonics are often necessary. The object of this article is not to lay down directions for the treatment of the different stages of scrofula, but to give instructions for the management of the bowels, &c. of scrofulous subjects, so as to secure the lungs, joints, glands, &c. against mischief; or, in other words, to keep the lymphatic system in a quiet state, and to strengthen it, so as to subdue morbid excitement, or the predisposition in it to inflammatory action.

Costiveness is a complaint to which scrofulous subjects are very liable, and being a general precursor of disorder of the lymphatic system, or of structural mischief either in the lungs, mesenteric glands, joints, or the glands of the neck, it may be considered so far an exciting cause of local action, that, had it been obviated, it would not have come into action. An occasional use of an aperient medicine is not only necessary as a *preventive* of local mischief in a scrofulous subject, but even when it has come into action it is no less important to keep up a regular alvine discharge, in order to give the topical and constitutional remedies a fair trial, which are supposed to act specifically on the disease; and it is probably to a neglect of this essential part of treatment that remedies, which have been highly extolled by some surgeons as correctors of scrofula, have failed in the practice of others. The best aperient medicine for obviating costiveness in scrofulous subjects is jalap, because it does not disturb either the process of chymification in the stomach, nor of chyfication in the duodenum, nor prevent absorption of the chyle for the due nourishment of the body, by hurrying it through the small intestines; its peculiar aperient effects arising from its action on the internal membrane of the colon, by increasing its fæcal secretion. The alkaline extract

is the best preparation of the root, which may be given in conjunction with the dried carbonate of soda and an aromatic, in the following proportions :—

*Aperient for the Scrofulous.*

Take of the alkaline extract of jalap, one drachm ;  
essential oil of carraway seeds, ten drops ;  
dried subcarbonate of soda, one scruple.

Mix, and divide into twenty pills, of which two or three may be taken every night or morning, so as to produce one *proper* alvine evacuation daily.

As a constitutional remedy, we know of none worthy a trial except iodine. The best form for <sup>or</sup>hibiting this article is the tincture, of which from twenty to <sup>thirty</sup> drops may be taken two or three times a day, in a large wine-glass or small tea-cupful of the decoction of marshmallow-root or coltsfoot. If the powers of the system have decreased, the Peruvian bark may be boiled with the marshmallow-root or coltsfoot, in the proportion of half an ounce to a pint of the strained decoction. The late Sir Walter Farquhar, and the late Dr. Cheston, of Gloucester, entertained a very high opinion of the anti-scrofulous property of the Malvern water ; and the late Dr. Baillie, in the memorandums which he left unpublished, states, that he found this water to prove very beneficial in scrofula.

Mercury in small doses (as the blue pill in the quantity of two grains, with two grains of the extract of hemlock, taken at bed-time for the course of a week or ten days), generally proves very beneficial in every stage of scrofula ; but when it irritates the gums, or excites mercurial fever, the scrofulous affection generally advances rapidly.

As a topical application to neglected scrofulous tumours, either of glands or joints, the following embrocation may be used twice a day, either by rubbing the part gently with it, by means of some fine soft flannel, or by applying flannel moistened with it over the part :—

*Embrocation for Scrofulous Tumours.*

Take of iodine, twenty grains ;  
rectified oil of amber, four drachms ;  
rectified spirits, two ounces.—Mix.

On adding the rectified oil of amber to the iodine, a combustion takes place ; and when this is finished, the spirit should be added.

The following ointment we have found very efficacious in dispersing scrofulous tumours, during the use of the tincture of iodine, &c. :—



*Ointment for Scrofulous Tumours.*

Take of hydriodate of potass, one drachm;  
elder flower ointment, six drachms.—Mix.

As auxiliaries to medicine and diet, the most powerful are sea-air and sea-bathing. The diet should be adapted to the state of the general health, and particularly to that of the sanguiferous system.

Mr. Abernethy says —“ I have remarked, in many instances, that diseases of the absorbent glands, such as are usually denominated scrofulous, occurring in adults, have apparently originated from the disorder of the digestive organs. In several cases the local disease wts of long duration, and had become worse rather than better under various plans of medical treatment; yet it amended regularly, and sometimes even quickly, in proportion as the state of the digestive organs was corrected. I need not detail any cases on this occasion, since every surgeon must know them familiarly. The patients are commonly sent to the sea-side, or into the country, where enlarged glands subside, and those which have suppurated and ulcerated heal; and the local disease recovers in proportion as the health in general is amended.

“ There are cases of scrofulous diseases occurring suddenly, and in various parts of the body at the same time, which seem to originate in that state of the constitution which is occasioned by disorder of the digestive organs. I have chiefly observed these cases in children, and they have followed some violent febrile affection. In two cases which I shall particularly mention, the small-pox was the antecedent disease. I have already stated, that when the health has been considerably disordered by some violent disease, the digestive organs may become subsequently affected, and that this disorder proves a cause of many secondary diseases.”

The two cases to which Mr. Abernethy alludes are so very similar, that it is only necessary to give one to illustrate the great advantages of his simple mode of treatment.

“ A child of two years old had the small-pox, from which he did not seem to recover, but, on the contrary, fell into a very bad state of health. The absorbent glands on the right side of the neck became enlarged in succession, so as to form altogether a very considerable tumour, which extended down to the collar-bone. The axillary glands then became affected in the same manner; the swelling was unusually great, and seemed to extend under the pectoral muscle, elevating it, and forming by this means a continuation of tumour with the glands of

the neck. These swellings had partially suppurated, and had broken in two places, viz. in the neck, and about the margin of the pectoral muscle, but no relief followed; on the contrary, the mass of disease seemed to be rapidly increasing. The child was bowed forwards, so that the spine was much curved in the loins; the left leg appeared paralytic, and a swelling was perceived in the abdomen, which I could not but ascribe to an enlargement of the external iliac glands. The child was extremely emaciated, his skin felt hot and dry, his tongue was covered with a brown fur, and the stools were black and highly offensive. As there was no expectation that he could survive this desperate state, those medicines only were prescribed that seemed likely to correct the state of the digestive organs; such as occasional doses of calomel and rhubarb. A strict attention to diet was also recommended. Under this treatment the stools gradually became natural, and the tongue clean. The disease seemed to stop immediately. As the health was restored, the swellings rapidly subsided, and the child became one of the healthiest and stoutest of the family."

In the second case the joints, as well as many glands, were considerably enlarged; the latter so much so, that Mr. Abernethy observes, "had I seen either joint, as a single case of disease, I should have said that it would leave the child a cripple." The same simple treatment also succeeded in the other case. To the last case he has subjoined the following remarks:—

"I have heard it remarked by surgeons of great experience, that patients often recover when many scrofulous diseases appear at the same time; although some of them may be so considerable, that they would seem to warrant amputation had they appeared singly. The cases which I have related afford a most clear and satisfactory account of the mode of recovery. General irritation and weakness bring on diseases, to which perhaps a predisposition may exist in several parts of the body: these cease when their exciting cause is removed.

"Of late, indeed, I have been equally surprised and rejoiced to see swellings of the absorbent glands in children readily dispersed by that medical attention to correct errors in the functions of the digestive organs, which I have described. Some of these swellings came on rapidly, and some slowly; but these were so large, and so much inflamed, that if any person had formerly told me they might be dispersed by such measures, I should have thought the assertion an absolute absurdity, from its direct contradiction to my former experience.

"The popular remedies, the juice of goose-grass, endive, colts-foot, &c., taken during the first or inflammatory stage of scro-

fula, frequently prove beneficial; but, after the powers of the constitution have been reduced by suppurations, they prove injurious by disordering the stomach. It is worthy of remark, that most of the remedies which have been found beneficial in serofula, as the sub-carbonate of soda, solution of pure potass, fox-glove, the Malvern water, infusion of parsley, &c. &c. are diuretic, and that they always prove most efficacious where they promote the secretion of the kidneys. The foul part of the blood being separated by the kidneys, they may have a beneficial effect on the system, by increasing their action. There is so close a sympathy between the kidneys and the whole lymphatic system (the principal seat of serofula), that diuretic medicines may operate advantageously, by keeping up the important functions of the latter."

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TREATMENT OF VARIOUS DISEASES FROM IRRITATION.  
BY DR. FOUNTAIN, OF NEW YORK.

*Nervous Headachè.*

It has been observed that not only the nerves, but the brain occasionally admitted of a perverted action, submitting to the laws of nervous irritative diseases in general. This is exemplified in what is called nervous headache: Periodical and nervous headache are often used synonymously; but such looseness in medical language is very objectionable, inasmuch as it leads to the very worst treatment.

Many people, especially sanguineous and delicate females with flushed countenances, are occasionally affected in the afternoon with pain in the head, which increases until they have slept a sufficient length of time, when they awake free from distress, and in good health. This continues uninterrupted until mid-day, when the same action commences, and runs the same course. This affection, which is truly periodical, arises unquestionably from an increased action of the capillaries of the brain, and consequently would be aggravated by stimuli or irritants.

The nervous, or periodical headache of authors, however, is quite the reverse of this. It affects the feeble and nervous with emaciated habits and pale countenances. It commences early in the morning, sometimes a few minutes after awaking, and continues until just after mid-day, when it begins to decline, and in the evening ceases entirely. It arises, most probably, from a perturbed state of the faculties of the brain, favoured by debility both cerebral and vascular. That pure debility or atony will not produce this affection, is evident from the fact, that ex-



cessive hæmorrhages and other directly depletory means, how far soever they may be carried, will not of necessity induce the disease.

*Cure.*—The indication of cure in nervous irritative diseases in general, that of elevating vascular action, will not always overcome the morbid process constituting this disease; although it frequently will, especially when supported by tonics, effect that end. This affection more readily admits of relief from counter-irritants, inducing a new action in the parts concerned capable of maintaining its ascendancy. For this purpose no article possesses half the efficacy of *arsenic*. This herculean agent, administered in doses of one-fourth or one-half a grain twice in twenty-four hours, with the interposition of a laxative every fourth or fifth day, will seldom, I may venture to say almost never, disappoint the practitioner.

*CASE.* A. Smith, Esq. aged twenty-three, of a spare habit and nervous temperament, had been affected eighteen months with the nervous headache. The pain commenced often before he awoke in the morning, and continued severe until evening, when he experienced a small respite. His appetite was bad, his pulse 130, and his spirits depressed. He had gone through the ordinary routine of medication: had been bled, blistered, and purged: had taken tonics, antispasmodics, &c. and when I first saw him, he despaired of obtaining relief from any quarter. I gave pills containing each one quarter of a grain of arsenic, ordering one morning and evening. Finding partial relief, he unadvisedly doubled the number, and took occasionally a laxative; and at the expiration of twenty days, found himself free from his malady. This was thirteen years ago, since which he has enjoyed comparatively good health; neither dropsy nor any ill consequences resulting.

### *Tic Doloureux.*

The pathology of no disease is perhaps more unsettled than that of tic doloureux. It would be foreign to my plan to encumber this paper with the jarring pathological views proffered by different writers. It has been considered local and general, primary and symptomatic; a disease of congestion, inflammation, and debility. Dr. Hosack observes that it is not confined to the nerves of the face, “but that it is frequently connected with the general condition of the system;” and this, he continues, is not at variance with Dr. Parry’s opinion of the proximate cause of this disease, which consists in “an inflammatory affection of the neurilema, or membranous envelope of the nerve affected;” and adds, that his principles “are no less in

accordance with the views of this disease by Dr. Armstrong," who expressly states, that "*tic douloureux* appears to be a complaint of the *brain itself*." This discrepance of opinion amongst authors is a proof positive of the want of just pathological views; but still from what I have witnessed, together with the most successful plan of treatment, I cannot refrain from expressing a belief that the foundation of *tic douloureux* is laid in the derangement of the digestive organs, more especially of the stomach and duodenum.

Such is the construction of our animated machine, that the nerves, the digestive organs, and the blood vessels, the three grand pillars of our mysterious fabric, are reciprocally dependent on each other; therefore the functions of neither can be materially deranged without interrupting the harmony of the whole. Opposite extremes often beget the same end; so violent nervous impressions, whether exciting or depressing, impede digestion by deranging the condition of the nerves concerned in that process, and defective chylicification is the direct consequence. "This, (says Dr. Johnson,) strikes at the root of health and strength, by depriving the whole system of its fundamental support; and debility, the parent of irritability, is the result." The same effects may arise from any cause whatever, which diverts either directly or indirectly the regular process of digestion; thus a foundation is laid for all that host of protean diseases which haunt those possessed of morbid sensibility. The author just alluded to observes, "that the causes of derangement in the nervous system may be branched into three classes," the whole weight of whose influence falls proximately on the digestive organs. "The lady whose case I have related," says Mr. Abernethy, "died about four years after of a disorder of the digestive organs, to which she was habitually subject." That a diseased state of the stomach should produce pain in a particular nerve of the face, in a system predisposed, is no more unaccountable than that the same state of the liver should produce a pain in the shoulder, arms, fingers, &c.

The pain in *tic douloureux* is, primarily, purely irritative and symptomatic, but, as frequently observed, irritation finally begets inflammation, the nervous sometimes developes vascular action of the part. "In the commencement," says Dr. Armstrong, "this disease merely consists of disordered action; but when it has continued a long time, that disordered action may have produced derangement of structure." Hence it is rendered considerably certain that in *tic douloureux* two distinct and opposite conditions do obtain, which accounts for the con-

tradictory mode of treatment successfully pursued by different authors.

*Cure.*—It is an established maxim in therapia, first to remove the exciting causes when they exist and continue to operate. As all general rules have exceptions, there is often one in this instance; for the derangement of the digestive organs, the exciting cause cannot be removed when the inflammatory condition of the nerve has been developed, until that state is subdued, as the means calculated to overcome the former would aggravate the latter. Although there be a congestion in the brain at the origin of the nerve, according to Dr. Armstrong, or an inflammation of the neurilema, according to Dr. Parry, it is not often cognizable to any of the senses. We are, therefore, wanting in criteria whereby to judge of the stage; and the only substitute must be the general principle already suggested, viz. the duration and intensity of the irritation. If the case have been severe and of long standing, we may reasonably presume “a change of structure,” has been induced, and our measures must be suited to the removal of that condition; and for this purpose Armstrong, Parry, and others, bled and purged; but, in my humble opinion, no means are so well calculated to this end as mild emetics.

The extreme remoteness of the affection from the centre of circulation, must render blood-letting either nugatory or utterly abortive, and purging promises but little more; but emetics give a general impulse to every living fibre, break old associated habits, give mobility new laws, increasing the action of the veins and lymphatics, and yet diminishing that of the arteries. They indeed seem to debilitate, but the debility they induce approaches the nature of a languor, readily admitting relief from the action of tonics to whose remediate powers they give a degree of congeniality and facility of operation otherwise unattainable. They should, therefore, not only precede a tonic course, but should be frequently interposed during its continuance.

Having cleared the way by an emetic, our next step is to restore the action of the digestive organs, and through their instrumentality, the vigour of the whole system. This object is most effectually accomplished by chalybeates, especially the carbonas ferri, employed so successfully by Drs. Hutchinson, Richmond, and Carter. This article, so celebrated, admits however of auxiliary means: a careful attention to diet, bitter infusions, exercise in the open air, change of scene, in short, every measure calculated to invigorate the digestive powers.



The irritation of the nerve would unquestionably admit of relief on the principle of removing irritative nervous diseases in general, were it not unsafe to induce so powerful an action in the part, added to the presence in the system of the exciting cause. Even though the removal of this were neglected, André, according to Dr. Good, "succeeded in removing it permanently" by the powerful action of a caustic, even after the scalpel had failed. But it is certainly more feasible to weaken or break up the morbid process in the nerve, and then to maintain a permanent natural action by tonics and chalybeates, which is the direct tendency of the means detailed.

CASE. An unmarried lady, aged twenty-eight, of a shattered habit and nervous temperament, had been affected six months with a severe tic douloureux. Viewing the case as purely nervous, I prescribed an emetic of twenty-five grains of ipecac. and followed it up closely by carb. ferri, and an infusion of quassia. Partial relief was obtained, but she soon relapsed. The emetic was repeated, and the same tonic course pursued, with exercise on horseback, which improved her health, and in proportion mitigated her complaint. She had many reverses, but was finally totally relieved by the alternate use of emetics and the tonic plan. Viewing the carb. ferri as the principal remedy, I gave it freely; and I may add, her health has ever since been good for a nervous female in a state of celibacy.

### *Rheumatism.*

Every practitioner of much experience must have witnessed cases termed rheumatic, especially of the back, shoulders, breast, and superior extremities, and even of most of the larger joints, which were uniformly unrelieved or aggravated either by a tonic or depletory course. A very striking case of the kind is mentioned by Dr. Philip. By a little attention the subjects of these rheumatic affections will be found to labour under some hepatic disorder. Since no organic derangement is manifest in the part, these pains must be nervous irritations, and symptomatic of the internal affection. Why a diseased liver should produce a pain in the shoulder, has never been satisfactorily answered, Dr. Good's explanation notwithstanding. But such is the fact; and not in the shoulders only, but in almost every joint of the body. I know several people labouring under slight hepatic derangements, who, for years, have seldom been free from these pains wandering from one joint to another. Some enjoy a degree of health, whilst others are feverish. Like sub-acute hepatitis, these pseudo-rheumatic pains may exist an indefinite length of time without inducing organic derangement.

But when from any cause they become aggravated, a real inflammation is developed by a law so frequently adverted to; and from an effect they become a cause. - Instead of an irritative symptomatic, we have now an inflammatory affection to encounter, frequently involving in the excitement the whole vascular system, producing a symptomatic fever. The former pains are supplanted, and a new feature is given to the primary disorder of the joints; and, on the principle of counter-irritation, the original hepatic disease is sometimes wholly removed. Now it must be evident, that this complication, from beginning to end, must be totally different from ordinary rheumatism from cold. This form is quite common; and the ill success of the means ordinarily employed has contributed not a little to strengthen the prejudices of people against the use of medicines in that disease.

*Cure.*—The means of cure in hepatic rheumatism may be divided into two classes—those required during the irritative, and those during the inflammatory stage. During the irritative stage, it is frequently sufficient to remove the exciting cause—the hepatic derangement. For this purpose mercurials and opening medicines are indispensable. Four or five grains of blue pill, with the same quantity of rhubarb, may be administered twice every day, and as much sulph. mag. and infusion of senna as will produce two motions, may be given every second morning. After using these resolvents for six, eight, or ten days, an infusion of quassia or columbo may be taken every morning to give tone to the stomach and bowels, and through them to the whole system; and at the same time to raise the action of the vessels of the painful parts, they may be embrocated with some stimulating liniment.

Dr. Philip observes, “I have already had occasion to allude to the case of a gentleman who laboured under severe pains of the legs, which had been treated unsuccessfully for two years. A grain of blue pill, combined with stomachic and opening medicines, was given three or four times a day, and the pains with the other symptoms disappeared in a few weeks.”

Deviating a little from my plan, I must beg to observe, that during the second or inflammatory stage we have a different and more difficult state to manage. We have hepatic derangement, universal debility, and local inflammation to encounter. The local inflammation having a tendency to relieve the internal affection, vigorous depletory measures cannot, according to my experience, be adopted with safety to the system. In this stage of hepatic rheumatism moderate venesection may be resorted to, and the excitement kept down by a combination of

submur. hyd. one part, pulvis antim. two parts, and nit rass. pot-ass. four parts given in doses of from eight to twelve grains every three hours, from mid-day till nine in the evening, followed next morning by an operative dose of sulph. mag. and infusion of senna. "During the early stage of the disease," observes Dr. Moore, in his Hospital Report, "the bowels are kept freely purged by giving each night, eight or ten grains of calomel, and in the morning following, salts with senna." Dr. Moore's cases were undoubtedly hepatic rheumatism; the success of his cathartic plan cannot be accounted for on any other principle. Enveloping the whole body in flannel, and the joints doubly so, should never be neglected. It is a particular injunction in every stage of hepatic rheumatism.

#### *Water in the Head.*

From the loose manner in which children are usually fed, and the keenness of their appetites, it is not surprising that they should eat too much, and that food of an improper quality. Hence by far the majority of the diseases of children are connected with a disordered state of their digestive apparatus, the delicacy of whose structure, at this stage of life, is extremely exquisite. The sympathy between these parts and the brain is so great and well known, that to name it is sufficient. Dr. Philip observes, "of all the sympathetic affections of distant parts in indigestion, none are so frequent as those of the head." The delicate structure and peculiar tenderness of the encephalon in infancy is eminently favourable to the evolution of any morbid process; therefore, every derangement of the digestive organs is immediately announced in children by cerebral irritation or pain in the head. Although these pains are primarily nervous and symptomatic only, if they are of frequent occurrence or long duration, they will induce an inflammatory action, just sufficient to terminate in effusion, and thus constitute a real dropsy of the head. It matters little what the cause of the deranged state of the digestive organs is, whether vitiated bile, or any other acrid secretion, corrupt living, colluvies or worms, the effect is the same, a source of irritation to the brain, which must continue so long as the causes continue to operate. Hence it is a matter of the greatest moment to children that pains in the head, particularly if accompanied by costiveness and frequent vomiting, should be promptly attended to; for according to the experience of Dr. Philip, five cases of six of hydrocephalus internus arise from this source.

*Cure.*—Hydrocephalus internus consists of three stages; the irritative, the inflammatory, and the effusive; therefore, the indications of cure must vary according to the progress of the



complaint. It is to the first stage I am properly limited, but the importance of the subject will justify any deviation in form.

In every stage of the complaint, the first step to be taken is the removal of the exciting cause; and this being generally some abdominal irritation, cathartics stand foremost on the catalogue of means. In the early part of the first stage they are frequently rejected, and if not, they commonly fail to operate. No danger being apprehended, they are often neglected many hours or days; at length they are repeated in the ordinary dose, and again fail. Meanwhile the irritation progresses, and before any alarm is created, the fate of the little patient is sealed. Hence it becomes necessary, on the failure of the first cathartic, to double our diligence, and produce a decided effect by sub. myr. hyd. scammony, or oil of croton. This last article is particularly useful, according to the reports of Dr. J. S. Rogers of New-York. And Dr. Philip observes, "if this mimic disease be kept up for a certain length of time, it will be converted into a real disease, let the cause which produced it be what it may." Excessive pain or irritation in any part will finally produce organic derangement, with all its consequences; and the action once evolved, it matters not whether it proceeds from the irritation of a disordered viscus, or a concussion of the brain itself.

After removing the exciting cause, our next step is to overcome the cerebral affection. If it have proceeded to inflammation, blood-letting holds the first rank, and next to it purging and blistering. The place usually designated for blistering is the scalp; but against this I must enter my solemn protest. Applied to this part, I have never known them productive of any benefit, but on the contrary of much injury. Nor is this surprising, when we consider the proximity of the diseased process to the scalp, which in severe cases is always hot, and actually partaking of the diseased process from within. Hence raising an action in that part must necessarily aggravate the disease. The very reverse of this, cold applications, are evidently required. I once attended a child who was continually rolling its head on the pillow, and uttering incessant screams. Placing a hard pillow under the head, I kept it constantly wet with cold water, and in less than two hours the little patient slept calmly. And by means of cathartics and a blister to the spine, a recovery was effected. This part, the spine, is the proper place for vesication, and on it blisters may be applied with the most decided success, from the head to the sacrum. In adults for cerebral affections, in typhus with delirium, &c., I usually apply them from eighteen to twenty-four inches in length.

ROUGHNESS OF THE HANDS, HAIRINESS, AND CHAPPED HANDS,  
AND THE MEANS OF REMEDYING THEM.

The roughness of the hands consists in the hardness of the skin, which instead of being soft and pliable, is parched and bristly. One is not surprised to see labourers have such hands, nay in them it is no deformity; but it is a considerable one in persons of a superior rank. In these it proceeds from several different causes; either from the want of a certain balsamic liquor which nature uses to supply the skin with, and which serves for its nourishment; or from the oozing forth of an acrid serum from the skin, which breaks its texture, and renders it rugged; or from the hand being too much exposed to the cold air, which shrivels and hardens the pores; or from washing them with water that is either too cold or too hot, for in this respect they have both the same effect; or from washing them with soap water, with a design to have them perfectly clean; or lastly, from employing them from time to time in some dirty work. That the skin of the hands then may be smooth and pliable, you must shun every thing that renders it unequal and rough; and when it has this fault, you ought to have recourse to such things as may correct it. This deformity is to be prevented, by never exercising the hands in any rough sort of work; by never exposing them too long to the air when it is very cold, and dabbling as little as possible in very cold water, or in soap water; but always washing them with water that is neither cold nor hot, mixing with it a little bran, and a small quantity of white wine. 2. By purging sometimes, to carry off some of the acrid salts of the blood; and using for a long time some sweetening drink, such as, for example, the water of wild poppies, which is prepared by boiling gently, for two or three minutes, a pugil or two of the flowers of wild poppies in a pound of water.

We come next to correct this deformity of the hands; and that is to be done, 1st, By observing the same directions which we have laid down for preventing it. 2d, By wrapping the hands up every night in a linen cloth, done over with a little oil of eggs. The following ointment may likewise serve for the same purpose:—

*Ointment for softening the Hands.*

Take cream and deer's grease of each an ounce,  
virgin wax a sufficient quantity;  
incorporate them all together over a slow fire.

Rub your hands with this ointment every night, washing them every morning with a little water and white wine, lukewarm.

There are some men who have the skin of their hands resem-

bling that of the sea-dog, which deformity proceeds from a great dryness of the hands, and a sharp humour supplied by the cutaneous vessels, which spreads itself over all the surface of the hand, fretting the texture of the skin, and raising it up into little scales, which produce inequalities like those of a file or grater.

Others have the skin of their hands chapped, that is to say, full of little chinks and crevices, in which, as in so many furrows, is heaped up a thick matter, which renders them so much the more deformed, that no paste, whether dry or moist, is capable of taking it out. These chinks proceed commonly from neglecting to dry the hands after they have been wet, which is frequently the case with children. I do not speak here of those which happen to the persons who bleach linen, or follow such like employments, it is not for such people that I write.

The means of preventing these two last deformities, are to shun carefully that which we have remarked to be the cause of them. As to the method of correcting them, it is not at all difficult, as may be proved by the use of the following

*Liniment for the Hands.*

Melt a quarter of a pound of fine white wax.

mix with it an ounce of the oil of St. John's wort.

Apply it to your hands as often as you can for some weeks.

When the hands are washed too often and too long, they become chopped. This frequent washing takes away that liveliness of the skin which is its principal beauty, and is something like that bloom which you see on several fruits, such as plumbs, for example, cherries, peaches, and grapes. This lively colour is easily removed, though it cannot be taken away by simply rubbing the hands, as may be done in fruit. It comes from below the skin of the hands, and is furnished by small cutaneous vessels, which pour it out gradually like a kind of sweat.

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TO PREVENT THE HABITUAL USE OF PURGATIVES. BY  
MR. HOWSHIP.

The evils that frequently arise from the constant use of purgatives, where the bowels are habitually confined, are too well known to the profession to require any illustration; but the parties themselves are not aware of the ill effects which such a system produces. The fact is, that purgatives are considered as the only means of obviating confinement of the bowels; but the case is quite the reverse; for the healthy and regular action of the bowels is oftener to be produced by bringing them into a proper tone, than by their continual irritation by means of purgatives.



It happened, says Mr. Howship, that an elderly lady, residing at Scarborough, desired my opinion, requesting me to consider of some plan, by the adoption of which she might obtain a more regular action of her bowels. She had no complaint to make as to her general health; her appetite was good, and she slept well, neither did there appear to be any material defect in the condition of the digestive organs; the only objectionable circumstance being that of her scarcely ever passing a stool without the assistance of medicine. The advice, she said, she had always received from her professional friends was, that, when confined in her bowels, she must still have recourse to opening medicines; she added, that really she had taken so great a variety, and so large a quantity, that she loathed the very idea of going on, and felt extremely anxious to know if any plan could be suggested to render it unnecessary.

On reflection, it appeared probable that this was an instance of deficient action from defective strength, and that, perhaps, by persevering for a time in the use of medicines calculated to restore tone, the bowels might recover the disposition, as well as the power, to propel their contents with regularity; at any rate, there could be no harm in making the experiment. I therefore first ordered the decoction and tincture of bark to be taken daily. This, in a week, appeared to have done neither good nor harm; there was no heat of tongue or skin; but there had been occasion for castor oil. Decoction of bark was next directed by itself; and in three weeks she thought her inside felt stronger, with less disposition to flatulence than before. In consequence of this amendment, the medicine was continued for a month longer, within which period she found there was no longer any occasion to solicit the action of the bowels at all, a regular and easy motion occurring every day. This restoration in the tone and action of the bowels appeared likely to be lasting; for there had been no return of the complaint a year and a half afterwards.

The adoption of a similar principle, with some slight modifications, has, in a variety of instances, enabled me to restore to the bowels the power of acting from their own impulse, without the perpetual necessity for being reminded of their duty. To set down particular instances would, I apprehend, be loss of time; neither have I preserved accurate notes but of very few. One of the cases in which this treatment completely succeeded has been mentioned. I might enumerate many others, the results of which were equally satisfactory. For the present, however, it will be sufficient to observe, that I have, in some instances, at first combined the decoction of bark, with a fourth

part the quantity of infusion of senna, or with that proportion which answered the purpose of regulating the bowels, occasionally diminishing the quantity of the aperient, till the action of the bowels was observed to go on well with the bark alone. Under some circumstances, the decoction and tincture of bark will answer extremely well together; but the decoction alone is, in general, less apt to require the temporary combination of Epsom salt, infusion of senna, or some other aperient.

If the innumerable train of ill consequences known to be induced by habitual confinement of the bowels are adverted to, there will be no need to excuse the bringing forward any proposition that has for its object the prevention or removal of so great an evil; more particularly while we continue to retain that sort of instinctive feeling which leads us to prefer food to physic.

I am not unconscious that we are all subject to feel the bias of attachment to our own opinions, for which reason the present remarks are intended rather as suggestions than as established truths, the practical value of which can only be absolutely determined by their being submitted to the test of our readers' experience. The ability of an individual is confined to the power of stating faithfully what he may have watched attentively within the comparatively narrow circle of his own personal observation.

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#### OF THE TONGUE-TIE IN INFANTS.

So far as we recollect we have not met with any distinction between the accidental fetter which is occasionally imposed upon the frænum of the tongue, and an original conformation of the frænum which renders the tongue too short; but this difference should be carefully noted, as very different consequences may result from mistaking one for the other. We shall, therefore, notice both these conditions of the tongue.

##### *Of the adventitious tying of the Tongue.*

There is very frequently attached to the frænum of the tongues of new-born children, a nearly transparent, whitish membrane, which pursues the natural frænum through its whole course, and continues beyond the point where the frænum stops, and terminates near the extremity of the tongue itself, so that the tongue is tied down as it were to its proper bed.

In consequence of this disposition of the frænum, the child cannot elevate the tongue, or protrude it beyond the lips, and, in its attempts to suck, it cannot apply it with sufficient force or certainty to the nipple, to make a complete exhaustion; there-

fore, it can suck but imperfectly, and this is accompanied by a clucking kind of noise. Whenever this is observed, the mouth should be examined, and it will almost always be found in the situation just described, but not necessarily, as there may be clucking without this membrane; but this membrane, we believe, is never without the clucking.

This membrane is easily discovered, by provoking the child to cry, or by elevating the point of the tongue by the extremity of the little finger. In making the attempt to raise the tongue, the child is almost sure to cry, and then this membrane is readily discovered, as it is now fully upon the stretch.

This defect is easily remedied. It should be done in the following manner:—Let the child be laid across the lap of the nurse, with its face towards a proper light; the operator must stand behind the head, so that he does not interrupt the light. The chin of the child must be gently depressed, by the forefinger of the nurse. When the chin is thus depressed, the little finger of the left hand of the operator must be insinuated between the side of the tongue near its tip, and the inner corresponding portion of the jaw, until it can lift up the point of the tongue; which being done, the membrane is immediately brought into view, and that upon the stretch; or, should the child now begin to cry, as it almost always does, the operator can easily place his finger under the tongue, and keep this false frænum tense, while, by a single stroke directly across it by a sharp gum lancet, he divides it to the true frænum; the operation is then finished. We have never known it necessary to repeat this operation. The incision through the membrane never yields more than a small drop of blood; no hæmorrhage can ensue, as this tissue is but very slightly vascular.

*Original Conformation of the Frænum, rendering the Tongue too short.*

In this species of “tongue tie” the difficulty to the child’s sucking, accompanied by the clucking noise just mentioned, arises from the frænum proper being unusually fleshy, and carried too far towards the extremity of the tongue, so that there is but a small portion or distance from the insertion of the frænum and the outer extremity of this organ.

In this case the inconveniences to the child are precisely of the same kind as in the other, but not, so far as we have observed, to the same extent; indeed, we have occasionally seen both combined. When the frænum proper is thus confined, we never venture to do any thing; 1st, because we have never found it absolutely necessary, as it never so far interferes with



sucking as to prevent it—the clucking noise, and the display of a little temper on the part of the child, in not receiving its nourishment as fast as it desires, are the only inconveniences attending it; 2d, because it is extremely doubtful whether the operation has ever been useful; but it is certain that it has often been troublesome, sometimes dangerous, and occasionally fatal. Bleedings to a fatal extent, swallowing the tongue, and convulsions, have followed the operation; we therefore, with our present views, can never recommend it.

*Swallowing of the Tongue and Hæmorrhage.*

We have often heard of, but we never have seen, a case of either swallowing the tongue, or of hæmorrhage from cutting it. Dr. Underwood speaks doubtfully upon this subject; he says, “the occasion of this accident, it has been said, is cutting too deep in dividing the frænum: I have here to notice its symptoms and remedy. The former are those usually attending strangulation, and come on suddenly, and without any probable cause but that of the tongue being cut; but to which they are seldom attributed by those who are strangers to the complaint. The infant appears greatly agitated, the face turns black, and unless these symptoms soon disappear, the child goes off in a convulsion. But if they are presently removed, the infant is as suddenly well, though they generally return again, and have in several instances proved fatal.”

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#### HINTS TO THE PHLEGMATIC AND CORPULENT.

Plump people, and such as are fat, are phlegmatic, and they ought to forbear excess of liquors of any kind; for there is a degree of fatness nature will not bear. As soon as we arrive at this point, our vessels crack, our humours corrupt, and dropsies ensue. Liquors fill our vessels suddenly, and we go on in a course of filling them, when we should study how to empty them. It is only allowable for thin and dry constitutions to moisten their clay; we then see the reason why old men naturally love their glass to a pitch of mirth; they may be allowed to comfort themselves, because their spirits are upon the decay, and liquors nourish soonest, wherefore withered constitutions should drink moderately of strong and spirituous wines.

Exercise is a remedy for corpulency; I have known unwieldy men quite reduced by making a business of exercise; and I don't confine myself to any sort of it; let them choose that which best agrees, but let them be assiduous and steady when they begin, till they have gained their point: chafing is a

small inconvenience: they will soon get over that trouble; their thighs will shrink in bulk, and give them more room to shuffle forwards every day, if they choose walking; and if they like riding, plasters of minium or red lead will defend them. A load of flesh and fat can hardly be borne by youth; but when age creeps on, and we keep the same load as in our youth, nothing can be expected but perpetual confinement; get rid therefore of your corpulency in your youth, if you design to lead your life with any comfort in years. For if you have not half the spirits in years that you had in youth, you carry double the load, and to increase your burden when you should lay it down, is growing in folly as you grow older. If fasting and exercise be a remedy for corpulency, and a nourishing diet and ease be agreeable to age, you have two diseases upon you; if you part with one you must part with your life. You see then how lean people grow fat; for ease and feeding moderately, that is, as much as they can digest, is the ready way to look well. Indolence contributes much to this end; nothing wastes us more than cares and hard study. The vulgar know not the effects of study; they think all is well with a man when he eats, drinks, and sleeps well, and wonder to see students look pale and wan; but nothing is more certain than that a chain of thoughts, anxiously pursued, will waste us more in a day than many good meals will compensate.

If you would preserve health a long time, in this climate of ours, you ought to take physic or a vomit whenever you find the stomach loaded; and that is easily discovered, because you will find a fulness at stomach, or you will be more costive than usual. In the first case, take a little green tea, infuse it in warm water, and drink plentifully of it, till all the slime be got off your stomach. There is this convenience in such an easy remedy, that as soon as you leave off drinking, you cease to vomit; and in the other case, if you go more sparingly to stool than usual, or not so often as you ought, then will you be troubled with colics; and, to avoid this, as also to assist nature in her duty, you may take one ounce or two of the tincture of *hiera picra*, which I look upon to be the best and easiest, as well as the gentlest physic that can be taken, for it is an agreeable bitter, and never gripes. This method takes off all fulness of humours, and prevents a great many disorders; in particular, if by irregular living you have reason to suspect a gout, nothing provides better against it than this tincture; and they who are troubled with fits of it, may, now and then, make free with a little of it before a fit, or after one; for it either prevents its violence, or carries off the dregs of one. But in this case, I strictly advise those who take this tincture before a fit, that they also take a

little glass of snakeroot wine once or twice a day, to carry the gout down to its usual station. If you have distempers that affect the head at certain seasons, or upon the changes of weather, this tincture of *hiera picra* is a sovereign preservative. And if you have any pains that are troublesome to the legs, as scorbutic people experience, the gentle vomit above mentioned ought to be repeated monthly; some in costive constitutions use new ale with advantage. I knew an old physician who for this reason never cared for other ale than what he drank from the vat.

The diet of lean people, and of the corpulent, should not be the same; for we cannot make lean people fat with salt meats, nor the corpulent lean with milks, creams, and jellies. If the lean are to be made fat, they must feed with smooth diet, such as almonds, millet puddings, sweet milks, jellies, creams, smooth ale, sack, chocolate, rice, and such like; to use little exercise, sleep much, and avoid cares. And if you want to make a man lean, feed him with little, and give him salt meats, and sour wines; let him exercise stoutly, study hard, or give him troubles for his portion; let him go late to bed, and rise early, and you may make a scare-crow of him at pleasure. Here the ladies, who wish to attain slenderness of figure may see how to accomplish it; but, I fear, few will care to purchase it at this rate.

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REMARKS ON THE CONSTRUCTION OF THE HUMAN STOMACH.  
BY SAMUEL THOMAS VON SOEMMERING.

“Soon after the new edition of my *Observations on the corporeal difference between the Negro and European*,” says M. Soemmering, “Mr. Billman, in Cassel, drew my attention to the fact, that, in respect to the stomach, there is also a great difference between these two races of mankind. The form of the stomach altogether appears, in the negro, rounder or at least shorter, than in the European. If we compare in the natural state, the stomach of a negro, fourteen years old, and of an European girl of twelve years, we observe this difference, particularly at that part commonly called its *cul-de-sac*. This blind sac is evidently more globular in the negro and, above the junction of the *œsophagus*, more convex than in the European. A similar but still more remarkable roundness of the stomach may be observed in the stomachs of apes, and which may be seen in Daubenton’s excellent plates to Buffon, just as it is found in the natural state. Thus, also, in the form of one of the most essential organs, namely, that of the stomach, the negro appears more to resemble the ape than is the case with the European. I am not aware that any one has noticed



this difference before myself. Neither Charles White in his '*Account of the regular gradation in Man,*' nor William Lawrence in his '*Lectures on the Physiology, Zoology, and the Natural History of Man,*' which, up to the present time, is the most perfect work on the differences of the human race, have touched this subject. Whether this remarkable difference can be looked upon as proof in support of the opinion of several natural historians, which is every day gaining more ground, viz. that mankind must have arisen from more than one original stock; and in what respect I shall, therefore, be obliged to change the opinion which I have before given, I will for the present pass by. But I must here formally protest against this new discovered corporeal difference being used as a plea in behalf of the cruel treatment which the Europeans continue to inflict on the negroes."

Another observation on the human stomach regards the description given by Sir E. Home, of the contraction in the centre, which appeared to him so remarkable, that he therefore divided the stomach into the pyloric and the œsophageal halves. It is quite true that this contraction in the stomach is met with, as Meckel has mentioned, and which I have often observed myself. But as this appearance, as well as I recollect, only shows itself in the female subject, and as Home has drawn it from one female body only, I regard it as immaterial, or at least deviating slightly from the usual state. I am greatly mistaken if it is not the effect of the tight lacing, particularly from the pressure of the breast bone of the stays; for such a bone laced only moderately tight presses just on the middle of the stomach so as to divide it into two parts. This machine, made either of wood, bone, or steel, works like every other mechanical irritation applied to any part of the living viscera. This must also be much more the case in the female stomach, as I have already remarked in my *Splanchnology*, as it is distinguished by its length from the broad roundness of the male stomach. But if such a contraction of the stomach belonged to its natural state, there must be a disposition to it, at least in some degree, apparent in the stomachs of children, in which, however, not the slightest trace of it is to be found.

The third observation on the human stomach concerns its lower end, or the *pylorus*. On examining the proper opening of the pylorus, which is most readily and easily done when the stomach is dry, and has been moderately distended with air, it generally appears more or less elliptical, seldom circular, consisting of a ring, occupied by concentric circles, which are different both as to their size and the direction

which they take. Sometimes the pylorus, that is, the fold or ring, which forms it, is broadest at the posterior surface of the stomach, and towards the anterior surface is narrowed in the form of a projecting fold. The longest diameter of this opening extends obliquely from before backwards; the smallest diameter, on the contrary, from above downwards, or from the right to the left side, or the lesser to the larger curvature. Sometimes the ring of the pylorus is, on the whole, remarkably broader, and its opening somewhat smaller. It has, therefore, its greatest breadth on the smaller, and the largest on the greater curvature. Its elliptical opening appears with its longest diameter between the larger and less curvatures, with its smallest diameter, on the contrary, from behind forwards, or in the direction between the anterior and posterior surface of the stomach. Sometimes the ring of the pylorus is broader, and its opening proportionally smaller; then its greatest breadth is not on the small, but on the greater curvature, and the longest diameter of its opening extends not from the right to the left, but from the anterior to the posterior surface of the stomach. Sometimes the ring of the pylorus, is proportionally to the size of the stomach, very broad, and at its opening, the same time very small. Between these three or four remarkable differences in the form of the pylorus, its other varieties may properly be classed; but as we have an excellent monography on this subject from Leveling, and a good description of this part from Haller, I will confine myself to the notice of a construction of the pylorus which was first discovered by one of my pupils, Scheuzer. This is a ring or circle of glands contained in the fold of this part, which, on the careful removal of the peritoneum and cellular membrane, may be shewn. I have had the honour of shewing this ring to the Academy, both in the natural state, and in two engravings. The natural size, the peculiar form, the true situation, the peculiar connection, as well as the line of demarcation marked out by it between the end of the stomach and the commencement of the duodenum, may be best seen in a preparation which has been kept in spirits of wine, and will then be so clear as to supersede, now, on my part, a more detailed description. F. Magendie distinguishes in the stomach *la partie splénique* and *pylorique*. At the pylorus, he says, the mucous membrane forms a circular fold, called the *pyloric valve*, and that a fibrous dense tissue is found between its plates, called by some authors the *pyloric muscle*. This valve of the pylorus serves both to prevent the return of the matter contained in the duodenum into the stomach, as well to keep the food and chyme in this viscus.



## TO CORRECT DEFORMITIES OR PECULIAR GROWTH OF THE NAILS.

The nails sometimes are set in such a manner, as their joining is quite exposed in the same way as a picture which is not joined to its frame. For the root and sides of each nail, ought to be set into the flesh round about as into a frame; and this frame ought to be so exact, as to come to a level with the nail, by the means of a small pellicle, which should come a little forward upon the nail in the form of a crescent.

When the nails are incased in this manner, the best way to preserve them so, is to take care never to soak the fingers in vinegar, the juice of citrons, or of gooseberries, or any other thing of that kind, which may make its way under the tender pellicle upon the borders of the nails, dry it, gnaw it, contract it, or make it turn up. For this reason young ladies ought to take care of their nails, in making the syrup of lemons, or the jelly of gooseberries, &c., which they have frequent occasion to do. They should likewise take care not to soak their fingers long in oily liquors; for then this border will become too soft, and being thus softened and relaxed, will not adhere to the nail; in the same manner as a piece of paper tied about a glass, quits the glass as soon as it comes to be soaked in water; for oily liquors have the same effect upon the borders of the nails, as the water has here with regard to the paper. The most part of cooks, who are almost always handling fat, have the nails of their fingers bare at the roots.

The true method of keeping the borders of the nails right, is to resign them to the operation of that natural balsam which nourishes them, and by the means of which these borders increase, and are renewed every day. All that is required for this, is only to touch the nails as little as possible, and to shun those things which we have told you are hurtful to them.

There is nothing better for taking away that blackness which gathers sometimes between the flesh and the top of the nail, than to bruise two or three sour grapes with the top of your fingers, and rub the juice upon the tops of the nails. But in doing this, you must take care not to let the verjuice run down upon the sides or the root of the nails, for then it will chap the little pellicle which borders the nail both below and upon the sides, whence the root of the nail will be laid bare, and the pellicle we are speaking of will be divided into little threads or tatters; such I call those little laminæ which rise sometimes about the nail, and which people usually pull out with small tweezers, or with the thumb



and forefinger of the other hand. When people take this way of rooting them out, they ought to pull very straight, for fear of tearing away part of the skin to which they are attached, because this may occasion little tumours that are no ornament to the finger.

This is all that is needful to preserve the nail from becoming bare at the root. But when it is already laid bare, what must we do to cure that defect? The method is very easy. You have nothing to do but to wet the border of the nail every morning with spittle, without wiping it after; and do the same every night when you go to bed. By this means the nail will soon recover its former inchasing, provided you shun every thing which we told you above was hurtful to the nails, without which all your trouble will be useless.

### *The Nails Crooked.*

Those nails are called crooked whose extremities are hooked inwards in the manner of claws, which is a very great deformity. This deformity generally happens to those who make frequent use of a tooth-picker, pin, or ear-picker, to take away the dirt which is apt to gather between the extremity of the nail and the flesh. This way of cleaning the nail, by being frequently repeated, makes its extremity to separate from the flesh, and causes it to put on the form of a hook; because, when it is thus separated, it must necessarily turn over upon the ball of the finger. I call the ball of the finger that round fleshy eminence upon the top of it, something in the form of a small pin-cushion, which is placed under that part of the nail which is detached from the flesh, and constitutes the principal organ of touch. In a word, I call the ball of the finger, that part of it which we employ in touching any thing, when we want to know if it is rough or smooth, hard or soft, &c.

What we have observed concerning the cause of the nails becoming crooked, points out at first sight what is to be done for preventing this deformity. But if they are already crooked, you must use the following remedy :—

### *Ointment for the Growth and Softening of the Nails.*

Take the yolk of a hard egg,  
and two ounces of fine white wax,  
incorporate them together in a small pot over the fire,  
and add to them a little of the oil of sweet almonds, to reduce them to the consistence of an ointment,  
which you must keep in a box for the following use :—

Anoint your nails with this ointment every night when you go to bed, and afterwards put on your gloves, which you must

not take off till the next morning. This must be continued for three weeks or a month, and by this means the nails will become soft, and recover their natural shape. But as they will grow faster than ordinary, be not too hasty in cutting them; let them grow pretty large, and after you observe them to be too large, pare them very gently, and at the end of one month, or thereabouts, you will see them well shaped.

It happens sometimes, without the individual being at all in error, that the nails contract this ill shape themselves, by the acrimony of a bad nourishing juice which is carried to them, and which, by contracting the fibres of the nails, renders them thus crooked. But from whichever of these two causes this crookedness of the nails proceeds, the remedy above prescribed is equally effectual; only with this difference, that in the last case, besides the ointment, you must have recourse to those internal remedies, which blunt the acrimony of the blood, such as barley-milk, water-gruel, veal broth, and the like, having first let blood two or three times, and taken some gentle purges.

*The Nails Grown over by the Flesh.*

The nails, when they are allowed to grow too long, are very ugly; but you should take care, when you would prevent or correct this deformity, that you do not cut them too short, as some persons do, who will not give them time to grow, but as soon as they observe them even with the flesh, gnaw them with their teeth, or clip them with scissars, and are not satisfied till they have got as much off them as they can get; nay, sometimes they encroach upon the flesh itself.

Those people imagine, that by this means their nails will become fine and delicate; but instead of that, they are very soon mortified, by seeing the flesh at the top of the fingers rising above them in the form of a pad, which, as it has the resemblance of an excrescence, makes the deformity the more remarkable and fleshy; besides, it is always accompanied with dirt, which sticks so very close to it, that there is no washing it away.

This deformity is very difficult to correct when once you have allowed it to gain ground, because the pain which the nail occasions when it is growing, by pushing the flesh which overgrows it, obliges you to cut the nail as soon as it comes that length; and thus the deformity continues, and becomes a necessary evil. But if you would have it cured, you must suffer this pain, and let the nail grow till it has reduced the flesh to its proper place. This however will not answer, if it is too long deferred; for then the nail, when it is growing, will insinuate itself into the flesh and divide it, which may have very bad consequences.

*The Nails too thick.*

The nail sometimes receives too much nourishment from the blood, which renders it large and thick. This overplus of nourishment proceeds from hence, that the substance of the nail is softer than it ought to be; for in that case the vessels which distribute the nourishment to the body of the nail, very easily receive, and admit without any resistance, whatever presents itself to their orifices; whence it happens that the nail becomes more solid and thick. To correct this deformity, there are two things requisite. The first is, to scrape the nail gently, and pretty often, with a bit of glass, or a very sharp knife; taking care in the mean time not to go too deep, for fear of hurting that membrane which lines the inside of the nail, and which abound with tendinous fibres extremely susceptible of pain. The second is, to apply an astringent plaster over the nail, such, for example, as the following; the property of which is to contract and straighten the small vessels which carry the nourishment to the nail, and consequently to hinder it from growing too thick.

Take equal parts of mastic, lapis calaminaris, sealed earth, the root of bistort, and those of angelica and tormentil, reduce them to a fine powder, and with a sufficient quantity of resin, wax, and turpentine, make it into a plaster, to be applied over the nail, and continued several weeks, only renewing it after it has been used for a good many days.

This plaster is likewise very serviceable when the nail has been too much scraped, in which case it ought to be immediately applied.

*The Nails Fallen or Falling off.*

The nails drop off from several different causes; as from their roots being eroded, as in the whitlow; or cut through, as in wounds; or crushed, as in violent bruises. In these cases there grows a new nail by degrees under the old one, which decays in proportion as the new one increases.

The old nail hangs sometimes loose for several weeks without dropping off; nor can it be taken away without pain, till at last the new one, growing larger and larger below it, drives it quite out, so that the person suffers no inconvenience from it; which proceeds from the tendinous fibres of the old nail being so compressed by the new one, that they become withered, and by this means lose all sense of pain.

It happens frequently, that the new nail takes a bad shape, because it is moulded by the flesh below, which is often rendered ill-shaped, also from one or other of the causes mentioned above. For if it is the whitlow that makes the nail drop off,



for example, in that case, as the flesh below is not compressed by the nail, upon account of its root being eroded and detached by the ulcer, that flesh, I say, must be at liberty to take a bad shape; and consequently the tender new nail, which begins to grow above the flesh, must be obliged to take the same shape, and thereby become disfigured.

Our business then is to see, by what means this bad figure of the new nail may be prevented. The most certain method is to apply over this nail, while it is yet tender, the concave side of a small bit of white iron, fashioned like a nail, that is to say, the same shape the nail ought to have; do it over on the inside with a little cerate, and fasten it to the finger in such a manner that the flesh, which begins to be covered with the new nail, may be obliged to take the shape of the white iron, and to mould itself by it. The cerate must only be renewed once in two days, and the white iron must be immediately clapped on again, that the nail may not be allowed time to take a wrong shape.

This method must be continued till the nail becomes hard; but as soon as it begins to harden, you ought to apply the white iron without the cerate, for fear of making the nail too tender, and by this means hindering it to acquire its due firmness and solidity.

We see a great many people who have the nail of the thumb, and sometimes of one of the finger, though this happens more rarely with two surfaces, inclining to one another in the form of an ass's back, whence this sort of nail has got its name.

In whichever finger this deformity happens, which is most incident to the thumb, it proceeds always from one of the causes mentioned above, and from neglecting to apply the proper remedy above described.

#### *The Nails Rugged.*

The unequal distribution which is sometimes made of the nourishment to the nails, renders them uneven and rugged. This deformity may easily be corrected, by the means of a little bit of bacon, applied over the nail, and covered with a linen rag. The bacon must be renewed every three days; one cannot express how effectual this simple remedy is for occasioning an equal distribution of the nourishment to the nail, and by this means rendering its surface smooth and even.

#### *The Nails Speckled.*

This blemish of the nails happens, when some of the particles of the juice which nourishes the nail happen to be intercepted in different places under its substance; for then these particles, which are naturally white, being disengaged from the red blood

with which they were mixed in the vessels, and appearing through the transparent horn of the nail, make it seem speckled with little white spots. This little blemish sometimes goes off of its own accord, by the growing of the nail, which as it shoots out in length carries the specks along with it; but sometimes it is as lasting as that little spot in the form of a crescent at the root of the nail, which is one of the beauties of the nail.

In this case we must have recourse to art, to disperse those little specks; and as they are only accidental, and have not the same origin with that little white spot at the root of the nail, which is natural, and an ornament to it, we may deface the former without hurting the latter. But by what means is this to be done? By applying over the nail a compress wet in spirit of wine and camphor, and leaving it there several days, wetting it from time to time in spirit of wine, and taking care to remove it as soon as the marbling of the nail disappears.

*The Nails Cleft or Split.*

Chinks of the nail, whether they be across it or lengthways, are commonly occasioned by acrid and corrosive salts carried along by the mass of blood, and stopt in the substance of the nail. The method of sweetening those salts, is to bathe the nail frequently with warm milk, mixed with a little water, in which a small piece of the root of marshmallows has been gently boiled, and as those acrid salts are supplied by the mass of blood, it will be proper to join with this external remedy some sweetening broths, together with the use of bleeding and purging. The broth ought to be made with a very little piece of veal and mutton, the half of a small pullet, and three or four crabs, the whole to serve for two messes of clear broth, one of which must be taken in the morning when you get up, and the other two hours after.

The purges ought to be very simple; a little manna dissolved in a mess of broth is sufficient. If the quantity of manna taken at first does not purge at all, or operates too gently, take a larger dose the next morning, or the day after the next; for it is very certain, that there is no sweetening purge more effectual than manna.

*The Nails Livid.*

The nail of itself has no colour; it is nothing but a transparent piece of horn, which transmits the colour of whatever is placed immediately below it. But the flesh and its blood-vessels lie immediately under the nail, or else there is some extravasated liquor lodged between the nail and the flesh, and by

this means the nail appears of the same colour as the flesh below it, or the extravasated liquor, if there be any there.

The most beautiful colour of nails is that of the pale-rose, every other colour of the nail is faulty. There are some nails as white as paper, others as red as blood, and others of the colour of a cherry. The white ones resemble those of a dying person, the very red ones have something rustic about them, and the cherry-coloured ones, though they do not offend the eye so much as the other two, yet they are not agreeable, but it is only the true colour of the flesh, that is to say of the pale rose, that pleases the sight. Those fingers that are every way well shaped and have nails of this colour, are as perfect as they can be.

Some nails are attached very firmly to the flesh, and others more loosely. When the nail compresses the flesh too strongly it appears white; when it does not press it enough, it appears of the natural colour of the flesh below it; and when the compression is neither too strong nor too gentle, it appears commonly a little paler than the flesh, of the colour of a beautiful pale-rose; taking it for granted in the mean time, that the flesh upon which the nail lies is of a lively red, as it ought always to be.

As a proof of what I have said, you need only press the upper part of the nail a little, and you will see it immediately grow pale if it is naturally red; and if it is white, it will appear still whiter.

The reason of this is, that in pressing upon the nail, you press likewise the flesh, which becomes whiter by the pressure, because the red particles of blood, which filled its transparent vessels, and made it appear red, are thereby repelled.

If instead of pressing the upper part of the nail, you press upon its sides, in the same manner as we press certain snuff-boxes to open them, the nail will then grow red all along its middle, from its top down to the white speck at the root of it, while the sides in the mean time become pale and white. The cause of this phenomenon is, that by squeezing the sides of the nail in this fashion, they press harder upon the flesh, while the back of the nail, on the contrary, is raised more into an arch, and thus the flesh is more at liberty under the back of the nail, than under its sides; whence it must necessarily happen, in the manner above explained, that the middle of the nail must grow red and its sides appear pale.

A blow upon the nail is sometimes the occasion that its roots, which are attached to the flesh, break and come away, which obliges the nail to fall off a few days after. But sometimes those roots remain entire, and there are only some blood-vessels broke, by the violent compression of the blow. In this case



there is only a small effusion of blood between the flesh and the nail, and this extravasated blood appearing through the nail, makes it seem pale, which is the colour of an ecchymosis.

This paleness sometimes disappears of itself, or with the help of a linen rag dipped in aqua vitæ, and applied over the nail, and all round the finger.

It happens however sometimes, that this livid colour of the nail continues obstinate. The method of preventing this inconvenience, is to put round the nail and the top of the finger a linen rag, done over with an ointment made of manna, oil of olives, and wax, prepared in this manner: Take an ounce of fine *calabrian* manna, the cleanest, whitest, and most transparent you can get; melt it in a little pot over the fire, with an ounce of white wax, and as much pure oil of olives; keep this ointment in a box for the use above mentioned, and apply it fresh to the finger every third day. This is a sovereign remedy, not only for preventing the paleness of the nail, but likewise for curing it.

Some will be surprised perhaps to see manna enter into the composition of an ointment, but it has very great effects in certain cases, applied externally.

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#### ON THE USE OF THE POMEGRANATE BARK, AS A REMEDY FOR TAPE-WORM.

Dr. Wolff, of Bonn, has published some good cases, exemplifying the efficacy of the bark of the root of the pomegranate in obstinate tænia. This remedy was proposed not long ago in a paper in the London Medico-Chirurgical Transactions, by Mr. Breton, who borrowed the practice from the natives of Hindostan; and since then it has been successfully employed by Dr. Gomés, of Lisbon. Dr. Wolff has given it in ten cases. In three it was eminently successful; in five it had little or no effect; in the two others the existence of the disease was doubtful. He says it has the advantage over oil of turpentine—the most efficacious of the remedies yet proposed—it being quite harmless, and not nearly so disgusting, in producing its effect with great rapidity, and in not requiring any preparative treatment. He generally used a decoction made by boiling to twelve ounces, an ounce of the half dried bark in twenty-four ounces of water; and of this he gave in the morning two ounces every half hour, as directed by Mr. Breton. Some vomiting occasionally took place before the requisite quantity was taken; but, on immitting the medicine for an hour or two, the stomach bore it better. In one case, after six doses were taken, the patient had six fluid stools, and a worm was discharged alive, measuring seven Cologne clls. Several fragments, followed and on

the same day the patient felt quite well. In the second case, the remedy was twice tried unsuccessfully; but on trying it again in stronger doses, the same effects followed, as in the former instance. In the third, the good effects were obtained with the first doses. In all, the action of the remedy was accompanied with nausea, and sometimes with vomiting—symptoms, however, which Dr. Wolff ascribes not to the remedy, but to the agitation into which the worm is thrown. In the five unsuccessful cases he suspected the bark was not of such good quality as the first sample he procured, the plant having been more sickly, and having flowered before the bark was gathered. But his want of success he is rather disposed to attribute to the remedy not having been given at a time when the worm is most irritable, and therefore most easily acted on. He says he has observed that remedies are always most likely to succeed if given at the time when fragments of the worm are discharged naturally; and supposes that at this time it undergoes some change, during which it is more sensible to external agents. In one of the unsuccessful cases it operated partially, causing the protrusion from the anus of two cells of the worm. Various poisons were applied to this portion with a view of killing the animal, but without avail. Even in the concentrated Prussic acid it was observed to contract and elongate itself, and no injury was produced.

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#### ON THE TREATMENT OF NETTLE RASH IN CHILDREN.

This is a very troublesome complaint, in consequence of the excessive itching which always attends it. It is almost always accompanied by sickness of stomach, headache, giddiness, and great susceptibility to become chilly upon the slightest exposure of any portion of the body. The fever which attends may be of greater or less violence, but almost always observing an evening attack, at which time all the symptoms are increased, and especially the itching. The weals which appear upon the skin are sometimes very extensively spread over the body; and at others, confined to certain portions of it, especially upon the inner surface of the fore arms, and inside of the thighs.

From the surface of the weals there issues an acrid serum, or lymph, which serves to perpetuate or renew the troublesome itching; and such is the disposition of the skin, while labouring under this affection, that you may at pleasure, if the fever be considerable, produce a continued eruption, by drawing the nail forcibly over the skin at almost any portion of it.

This eruption sometimes disappears as suddenly as it shows itself; and when this is the case, serious consequences have



sometimes resulted, though this disease is but very rarely fatal. We but once have witnessed danger from the retrocession of the eruption. In this case the patient had had previously several attacks of an intermittent, from which she had been relieved each time by the sulphate of quinine. Her health appeared to be rapidly mending for some time, and she had nearly acquired her wonted strength; when very early in the morning she was attacked with urticaria, to which she had been occasionally liable.

Soon after it had made its appearance she became extremely sick, and vomited very freely; she complained of a severe pain in the head, which was quickly followed by delirium. At this time we saw her; besides the symptoms just named, we found her extremely restless, throwing herself into a variety of positions, as if unable to keep quiet for a moment. The face was cadaverous, and evinced much uneasiness; her intellect was not sufficiently collected to give us any rational answer to our questions. The extremities were cold, the pulse nearly extinct, and the breathing very laborious—in a word, her situation was truly alarming.

Hot applications were made to the feet and legs; a very large warm sinapism was applied to the region of the stomach; and ten grains of the carbonate of ammonia were ordered every hour, together with a spoonful of hot brandy toddy every few minutes.

The parts of the body from which the eruption had disappeared, exhibited a motley livid hue; other portions of the skin were "goose-fleshed," to a great degree. The bowels were spontaneously opened at the time the puking took place, and she passed a large quantity of urine.

We saw our patient after an absence of two hours, and found her in rather a more favourable situation, but very far from being relieved. The legs and feet were rather warmer, but the mustard had scarcely acted upon the skin. The volatile alkali and brandy toddy sat well on her stomach; the delirium rather relieved, and the whole skin looked somewhat more natural. The remedies were ordered to be continued.

At the end of two more hours we again visited our patient; and now found her much amended—that is, the warmth of the body greater and more natural; the delirium and jactitation less; the pulse more open, the countenance more natural and less distressed, but no return of the eruption. Remedies were ordered to be continued.

In the evening, upon our return, we found a pretty plentiful crop of the eruptive weals, attended by much itching. The warmth of the skin rather above the natural standard; the delirium gone; the inquietude over. The volatile alkali and



brandy were suspended; a liberal dose of magnesia ordered, and a little chicken water from time to time was allowed.

On our visit on the following morning we found our patient feeble, but relieved from the eruption, and free from fever. She was soon restored to health.

It would be difficult to say what may be the cause of nettle rash; be this what it may, the force of the disease is chiefly spent upon the cutaneous system; but with which the stomach is sure to sympathize. It sometimes becomes chronic; and we have known several young people liable several times in the year to returns of it, without any evident exciting cause.

This disease, however, is much more frequently a sympathetic affection, and arising sometimes from difficult dentition, and at others from some offensive substance taken into the stomach—this is especially the case with children until the age of puberty. Acids of every kind seem capable of producing it—hence the frequency of its appearance after crude fruit, cucumbers, young cabbage, lemonade when the body is heated, &c.

The plan of treating this complaint is in conformity to the condition of the stomach; for whether this disease be symptomatic or otherwise, the stomach is sure to possess great acidity—to destroy this is essential both to its alleviation and cure. Magnesia should therefore be freely prescribed; lime-water and milk should also be given, particularly when the eruption has continued several days. A milk diet should be adhered to; and if no fever be present, chicken water and beef tea may be indulged in.

It is common in this disease to give saline purges, but this is decidedly injurious—there is no purgative so certain or proper as magnesia, or magnesia and rhubarb. It is also common to permit the patient to take lemonade; but this is still worse—plain water, or toast water not too cold, are the best drinks. Solid food should be avoided, as should damp places, or streams of cold air.

To relieve the excessive itching, the patient should be liberally dusted with well toasted rye or wheat flour, and resist as much as possible the desire of scratching; instead of which let the part be well rubbed with a handful of flour, and much relief will be experienced.

In the chronic form of this complaint, we have found a persevering use of small doses of Fowler's mineral solution to have succeeded in every case in which we have hitherto tried it. Children of from seven to fourteen years old may take four drops every morning, noon, and evening, in sugar and water; or should this sicken, give but three.

## ON THE CURE OF DRUNKENNESS.

The fatal effects that are too frequently produced by an indulgence to excess in spirituous or vinous liquors, are unfortunately but seldom contemplated while the pernicious habit is acquiring; even parents seldom think for a moment that the trifling indulgence of wine or punch, though given in small quantity, may lay the foundation of the character of the future inebriate; or that they are, by a thoughtless, though culpable gratification of their own feelings, destroying the future peace of their offspring. The habit of drunkenness, however, when once acquired, is what we have more immediately to do with; it is to cure that we aim; and we shall give the opinions of a writer who has lately taken up the subject, with great effect.

The first step to be adopted is, the discontinuance of all liquors or substances which have the power of intoxicating. The only question is—should they be dropped at once, or by degrees? Dr. Trotter, in his *Essay on Drunkenness*, has entered into a long train of argument to prove that in all cases they ought to be given up *instantly*. He contends that, being in themselves injurious, their sudden discontinuance cannot possibly be attended with harm. But his reasonings on this point, though ingenious, are not conclusive. A dark unwholesome dungeon is a bad thing, but it has been remarked, that those who have been long confined to such a place, have become sick if suddenly exposed to the light and pure air, on recovering their liberty. Had this been done by degrees, no evil effects would have ensued. A removal from an unhealthy climate (to which years had habituated a man) to a healthy one, has sometimes been attended with similar consequences. Even old ulcers cannot always be quickly healed up with safety. Inebriation becomes, as it were, a second nature, and is not to be rapidly changed with impunity, more than other natures. Spurzheim advances the same opinion. “Drunkards,” says he, “cannot leave off their bad habits suddenly, without injuring their health.” Dr. Darwin speaks in like terms of the injurious effects of too sudden a change; and for these, and other reasons about to be detailed, I am disposed, upon the whole, to coincide with them.

If we consider attentively the system of man, we will be satisfied that it accommodates itself to various states of action. It will perform a healthy action, of which there is only one state, or a diseased action, of which there are a hundred. The former is uniform, and homogeneous. It may be raised or



lowered according to the state of the circulation, but its nature is ever the same: when that changes—when it assumes new characters—it is no longer the action of health, but of disease. The latter may be multiplied to infinity, and varies with a thousand circumstances; such as the organ which is affected, and the substance which is taken. Now, drunkenness, in the long run, is one of those diseased actions. The system no longer acts with its original purity: it is operated upon by a fictitious excitement, and, in the course of time, assumes a state quite foreign to its original constitution—an action which, however unhealthy, becomes, ultimately, in some measure, natural. When we use opium for a long time, we cannot immediately get rid of it, because it has given rise to a false action in the system—which latter would suffer a sudden disorder if deprived of its accustomed stimulus. Disease here triumphs over health, and has established so strong a hold upon the body, that it is dislodged with difficulty by its lawful possessor. When we wish to get rid of opium, or any other narcotic to which we are accustomed, we must do so by degrees, and let the healthy action gradually expel the diseased one. Place spirits or wine in the situation of opium, and the results will be the same. For these reasons, I am inclined to think, that in many cases at least it would be improper and dangerous to remove intoxicating liquors all at once from the drunkard. Such a proceeding seems at variance with the established actions of the human body, and as injudicious as unphilosophical.

I do not, however, mean to say, that there are no cases in which it would be necessary to drop liquors all at once. When much bodily vigour remains—when the morning cravings for the bottle are not irresistible, nor the appetite altogether broken, the person should give over his bad habits instantly. This is a state of incipient drunkenness. He has not yet acquired the constitution of a confirmed sot, and the sooner he ceases the better. The immediate abandonment of drinking may also, in general, take place when there is any organic disease, such as enlarged liver, dropsy, or schirrhous stomach. Under these circumstances, the sacrifice is much less than at a previous period, as the frame has, in great measure, lost its power of withstanding liquors, and the relish for them is also considerably lessened. But even then, the sudden deprivation of the accustomed stimulus has been known to produce dangerous exhaustion; and it has been found necessary to give it again, though in more moderate quantities. Those drunkards who have no particular disease, unless a tremor and loss of appetite be so denominated, require to be deprived of the bottle by degrees. Their system



would be apt to fall into a state of torpor if it were suddenly taken away, and various mental diseases, such as melancholy and madness, might even be the result. With such persons, however, it must be acknowledged that there is very great difficulty in getting their potations diminished. Few have fortitude to submit to any reduction. There is a gnawing desire left behind, infinitely more insatiable than the longings of a pregnant woman.

Drunkenness, in the long run, changes its character. The sensations of the confirmed tippler, when intoxicated, are nothing, in point of pleasure, to those of the habitually temperate man, in the same condition. We drink at first for the serenity which is diffused over the mind, and not from any positive love we bear to the liquor. But, in the course of time, the influence of the latter, in producing gay images, is deadened. It is then chiefly a mere animal fondness for drink which actuates us. We like the taste of it, as a child likes sweetmeats; and the stomach, for a series of years, has been so accustomed to an unnatural stimulus, that it cannot perform its functions properly without it. In such a case, it may readily be believed that liquor could not be suddenly removed with safety.

The habit will sometimes be checked by operating skilfully upon the mind. If the person has a feeling heart, much may be done by representing to him the state of misery into which he will plunge himself, his family, and his friends. Some men, by a strong effort, have given up liquors at once, in consequence of such representations.

Many men become drunkards from family broils. They find no comfort at home, and gladly seek for it out of doors. In such cases, it will be almost impossible to break the habit. The domestic sympathies and affections, which oppose a barrier to dissipation, and wean away the mind from the bottle, have here no room to act. When the mother of a family becomes addicted to liquor, the case is very afflicting. Home, instead of being the seat of comfort and order, becomes a species of Pandemonium: the social circle is broken up, and all its happiness destroyed. In this case, there is no remedy but the removal of the drunkard. A feeling of perversity has been known to effect a cure among the fair sex. A man of Philadelphia, who was afflicted with a drunken wife, put a cask of rum in her way, in the charitable hope that she would drink herself to death. She suspected the scheme, and, from a mere principle of contradiction, abstained in all time coming, from any sort of indulgence in the bottle.

Sometimes an attack of disease has the effect of sobering

drunkards for the rest of their lives. I know a gentleman who had apoplexy in consequence of dissipation. He fortunately recovered, but the danger which he had escaped made such an impression upon his mind, that he never, till his dying day, tasted any liquor stronger than simple water. Many persons, after such changes, become remarkably lean; but this is not an unhealthy emaciation. Their mental powers also suffer a very material improvement—the intellect becoming more powerful, and the moral feelings more soft and refined.

Those who have been for many years in the habit of indulging largely in drink, and to whom it has become an *elixir vitæ* indispensable to their happiness, cannot be suddenly deprived of it. This should be done by slow degrees, and must be the result of conviction. If the quantity be forcibly diminished against the person's will, no good can be done; he will only seize the first opportunity to remunerate himself for what he has been deprived of, and proceed to greater excesses than before. If his mind can be brought, by calm reflection, to submit to the decrease, much may be accomplished in the way of reformation. Many difficulties undoubtedly attend this gradual progress, and no ordinary strength of mind is required for its completion. It is, however, less dangerous than the method recommended by Dr. Trotter, and ultimately much more effectual. Even although his plan were free from hazard, its effects are not likely to be lasting. The unnatural action, to which long intemperance had given rise, clings to the system with pertinacious adherence. The remembrance of liquor, like a delightful vision, still attaches itself to the drunkard's mind; and he longs, with insufferable ardour, to feel once more the ecstasies to which it gave birth. This is the consequence of a too rapid separation. Had the sympathies of nature been gradually operated upon, there would have been less violence, and the longings had a better chance of wearing insensibly away.

Women who indulge in liquors are very unqualified to act as nurses: their milk acquires heating and unhealthy qualities, which prove highly detrimental to the infant. If a nurse cannot afford the necessary supply of milk without such stimulants, she ought to be changed, and another substituted in her place.

[*To be Continued.*]

## ON THE PREVENTION AND CURE OF FISTULA.

### *On the Causes of the Disease.*

The cellular and adipose substance surrounding the verge of the anus, in common with the same texture elsewhere, is sub-



ject to inflammation and abscess. This may arise here from any of those causes known to produce these changes in other parts of the body—any external violence; any irritation within, or near the extremity of the rectum; and particularly that excitement sometimes consequent to fever. A severe cold frequently operates as a cause; excessive fatigue also has, in some instances, apparently been the means of inducing inflammation and abscess near the anus.

The causes productive of fistula in ano, will, as to their mode of operation, very much depend on the habits and health of the patient. Where the health is bad, and the constitutional resources deficient, I have seen the most trivial circumstances bring on a train of ill consequences of so serious a description, as to baffle the best efforts of surgery; when, however, the habit being sound, the case is early attended to, the most violent attack, or most alarming accident, frequently proves perfectly manageable, terminating well beyond any reasonable expectation.

#### *On the Symptoms and Appearances.*

The existence of a sinus, or what has been termed a fistula in ano, has been supposed to indicate in every case a depraved habit, and in particular an unhealthy condition of the parts affected. This, however, is by no means true. The mere production of a sinus is a circumstance dependent upon a general principle that should never be lost sight of by the practical surgeon, being as frequently applicable to other kinds of abscess, as to that now under consideration. Observation evinces that wherever an abscess forms in cellular membrane, the matter is apt to burrow, where it meets least resistance; in other words, it is disposed to extend the limits of the abscess in whatever direction the cellular membrane is most relaxed: upon this principle the matter frequently makes its way to some extent along the rectum, penetrating between the coats of the bowels, and forming a narrow sinus, or fistula.

The early stage of the inflammatory attack, in the young and healthy, usually presents a circumscribed prominent tumour, heated, red, and painful; with quickened pulse, heated skin, thirst, and white tongue, dependent on constitutional sympathy. Under neglect, or mismanagement, this re-action of the system will sometimes occasion high fever and delirium.

Phlegmonous or healthy inflammation in these parts would, perhaps, generally terminate in suppuration, were nothing done for its relief; but inflammatory action so readily extends itself, and the various organs in the immediate vicinity are so delicate in their structure, and so important in their functions, that de-



cision is no less necessary than discrimination at the onset of the attack, to ensure, as far as possible, a successful event.

In no case that I know of is neglected inflammation productive of more permanently distressing consequences to the patient than in the present complaint, although this is one of the many truths, the real importance of which is seldom duly appreciated till it is learned by painful experience.

In some instances a considerable degree of constitutional excitement may attend local tumour, more extensive, and less distinctly circumscribed than the above; the dull red colour, and the less elastic feel of the parts exhibiting the characters of erysipelas. There may, in this case, be more disease of cellular membrane, but the suppuration will be less perfect, and less plentiful, than in phlegmonous inflammation.

Occasionally the inflamed parts may assume a lurid and dusky colour, and although harder than natural there shall be less tension than belongs either to phlegmon or erysipelas; the pulse being full and hard, the thirst great, and the restlessness fatiguing. In this state of things, unless the patient is soon relieved by medicine, the pulse, strength, and spirits, all give way together, and sink to an alarming extent. Should matter be formed, it is, as Mr. Pott has well observed, small in quantity, and bad in quality, the cellular membrane being extensively sloughy and gangrenous. This is the "suppuration gangreneuse" of the French authors.

Some degree of irritation at the neck of the bladder generally attends the formation of matter in its neighbourhood. This may excite uneasiness in making water, or anxiety to void the urine, or produce so much spasm, as to bring on a total retention of urine. From the same cause may arise temporary irritation, or painful fulness at the lower part of the rectum, inducing an irksome bearing down, hæmorrhoidal tumours, frequently confinement, but now and then relaxation of the bowels.

When an abscess is formed, a part of the surface becoming softer than the rest, the skin usually gives way, allowing the escape of the contents. Sometimes, however, I have found the first discharge arise from the sinus having burst into the intestine.

The most common state presents a single external opening near the anus, generally with a sinus passing up the side of the bowels; in other cases there is one opening from the abscess externally, and another by the sinus into the cavity of the intestine.

The late Mr. Pott, in his excellent treatise upon this subject, has stated that fistulous complaints do not very unfrequently stand upon a venereal basis; and so far as the existence of sinuses

communicating with the neck of the bladder, and also with stricture in the urethra, may confirm such opinion, I have myself, in repeated and frequent instances, had the care of cases decidedly of venereal origin.

The appearances that occur in the examination of a sinus, or fistula in ano, are usually confined to an ulcerated space, more or less extensive, in the adipose membrane near the anus, connected with a narrow canal or sinus, admitting a probe to pass for some extent upwards between the coats of the bowels; communicating with the cavity of the intestine, or not, as it may happen. The parietes of the abscess, in healthy inflammation, demonstrate the induration consequent to affusion of coagulable lymph into the cellular texture surrounding the cyst; the same appearance being to a certain degree generally perceptible along the line of the sinus immediately connected with the intestine.

In erysipelatous inflammation, and especially in the gangrenous suppuration, the cellular membrane exhibits the principal traces of the disease; in the former case this texture is usually inflamed, and disposed to slough, in the latter it is found more extensively sloughy and gangrenous.

Those cases in which abscess takes place within the pelvis, or high up towards the loins, generally derive their formidable character from the circumstances under which matter is deposited, as it is almost invariably found to have injured, or destroyed, some part of one or other of the bones of the pelvis; and even the importance of these cases is, upon enquiry, generally found to have been derived from long neglect on the part of the patient. In one case of diseased hip, connected with a sinus that passed over the tuberosity of the ischium, I found on dissection, three or four fragments of the bone carious, separated, and black; one of the fragments had partly made itself a passage out through the soft parts. I have seen several other cases nearly similar; but in examining one where an abscess behind the rectum had formed within the sacrum, I found the peritoneum thickened, sloughy, and separated from nearly the whole concave surface of the bone; this was consequently bare, and black as charcoal; the open texture of the necrosed bone being saturated with a dark coloured offensive purulent fluid. We come now to speak of

#### *The Treatment.*

In the treatment of phlegmonous inflammation near the anus, should the local heat, pain, and tumour, be considerable, we must sometimes have recourse to blood-letting. If the habit and pulse are full, as well as disturbed, a vein may be opened in the arm; in other cases it may be sufficient to take away a much



smaller quantity near the seat of the affection by leeches, or cupping. This measure may occasionally be expedient, not so much to prevent suppuration, as for the more important purposes of moderating the extent of inflammatory action, and promoting the favourable operation of the other means of relief.

The assiduous use of fomentations also is to be directed, and continued till the abscess is formed, and its contents discharged.

The central part of the tumour becoming soft, the external skin may be permitted to become thin, before it is opened with a lancet. When this opening is made, it must be prevented from closing directly, by the insertion of a few threads of lint. After the abscess is opened, the parts may still be fomented for a few days, till all the inflammation, and most of the surrounding hardness, have subsided. Under these circumstances the cavity of the abscess, provided the discharge is healthy, will contract apace, and be very soon healed.

If the abscess does not heal readily, or should the flow of matter be greater in quantity, or worse in quality, than it ought to be, a probe gently introduced, will easily determine whether a sinus exists, either towards the bowel, or in any other direction.

Should febrile symptoms be urgent, they may be relieved by some of the means already suggested, without interfering with the other objects which must in the present case be held in view.

In the second kind, or erysipelatous inflammation, bleeding is but seldom proper, neither will the patient bear the free adoption of other evacuations. The occasional use of gentle aperients however, will be essentially useful. Warm and emollient fomentations must be applied, and when suppuration commences, although it may be imperfectly established, it will be right to make an opening, which, by allowing the escape of matter, will diminish the risk of the further extension of disease in the cellular membrane.

In the third kind of inflammation, hot spirituous fomentations must be applied; free incisions be made into the diseased parts, and recourse be immediately had to medicines. The patient should be directed the cinchona, in combination with other tonics and opiates, so administered as to afford the most effectual aid in restoring a broken constitution.

Where, from the formation of abscess, irritation or spasm takes place at the neck of the bladder, opiates, and a free use of mucilaginous decoctions, will generally procure relief. When this affection goes on to retention of urine, anodyne relaxation must still be the leading principle in treatment, aided by evacuations from the bowels, and also by blood-letting, together with fomentations, followed by an emollient and opiate glyster.



Irritation excited in the rectum, will be relieved by the gentle operation of some mild aperient, or the exhibition of a warm emollient injection. Should obstinate costiveness occur, from the accumulation of hardened fæces, no time must be lost in procuring relief, for while this state continues, every symptom will be aggravated. Repeated aperients, the injection of laxative glysters, in some cases assisted by the abstraction of blood, will be the proper means; neither must they be laid aside till there is reason to feel assured that the bowels are cleansed, and the system consequently relieved, from that which experience teaches may otherwise prove a source of infinite irritation, and many distressing symptoms.

When the abscess is formed, and its contents have been discharged, it will in general be proper to ascertain whether a sinus exists or not. If such be found, the sooner it is divided the better. In effecting this division, every surgeon who duly regards his patient's feelings, and his own character, will prefer that mode of operating, which accomplishes its object with the least pain, the least delay, and the greatest certainty of a successful event; and this mode is most certainly that in which the division is made with the probe-pointed bistoury.

In performing the operation for fistula in ano, a probe first passed into the sinus traces its direction and extent along the side of the gut. The fore-finger of the other hand, previously oiled, is then passed through the sphincter, so as to feel distinctly the point of the probe; this being withdrawn, the bistoury is to be lightly and gently introduced in its place, till the point of the instrument in the sinus is made to press against that of the finger in the rectum. In this stage of the operation, should no direct opening be found from the sinus to the bowel, the least additional pressure of the point of the bistoury against the finger may be made to bring them into actual contact. The point of the finger now becoming a guide to the bistoury, presses the instrument on before it, so that while the finger is gradually withdrawn, the bistoury is made to cut its way out, and the operation is finished.

The parts are to be lightly dressed with a narrow slip of fine lint, carefully introduced along the course of the sinus, in such manner as to prevent the union or contact of the recently divided parts; for unless this is prevented, the operation may fail.

Where the abscess is large, or the habit unsound, sinuses are frequently found passing in various directions beneath the integuments. These must be severally laid open, and dressed regularly in such a manner as to give a gentle stimulus to the parts, and to prevent any lodgment of matter.

In the many operations of this kind, I have either performed myself, or seen performed by others, some few have been attended with a rather considerable loss of blood. But I have never known an instance in which there was the least real difficulty in restraining the hæmorrhage.

Occasionally, though rarely, the disease is not capable of cure by the above means. Where the constitution is unhealthy, whether from age, debauchery, or other cause, difficulties may arise. In one case, as fast as the divided sinuses heal, others form, and are unexpectedly discovered; in another, the sinuses, when laid open will not heal, pouring out, for a tedious length of time, a thin offensive discharge. Under these circumstances recourse must be had to medicine, with a view to improve the tone, increase the strength, and diminish the irritability of the system. In these cases, I have sometimes found change of air effect that improvement of constitution which medicine had failed in accomplishing.

It may happen that, either from inattention or ill health, the constitution may be so reduced as to render the immediate performance of the operation unadvisable; medicine must be directed, and as the appetite becomes established, and the strength restored, the state of the local complaint will be observed to improve, till at length the parts assume the appearances of health, previous to which an operation would be at least useless, if it had no worse tendency.

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#### ON THE OPHTHALMIA OF INFANTS.

From about the fourth to the seventh or eighth day, or longer, after delivery, we sometimes find the eyes of the child beginning to inflame; they are at first observed to glue up in the morning, and quickly after the whole of the lids become swelled, and especially in the early part of the day, or until the eyelids have become unclosed, and given issue to some purulent matter. The eyes themselves are soon found to partake of the inflammation of the lids, and have a peculiarly fiery appearance; the child now keeps its eyes entirely closed, or closes them at the approach of even a weak light. After a plentiful secretion of pus has taken place, which generally happens after the third or fourth day, the lids during the night become pretty firmly attached to each other, in consequence of the discharge from them becoming inspissated, and thus gluing them firmly together; this permits a considerable accumulation of pus behind them, which distends the upper eyelids especially, very considerably, and swells them sometimes even with the socket. Upon moistening the eyes



with warm water, the lids are enabled to separate, which permits a considerable quantity of pus to discharge itself—the eyes now seem to swim in pus, and the dark parts of them can no longer be seen. The whole of the internal linings of the eyes, which become exposed upon separating the lids, is of a bright scarlet red, manifesting an intense degree of inflammation, which if not interrupted by very active remedies, runs on to disorganization, and total blindness.

The remote cause of this complaint is some foreign matter they acquire in transitu—this may be the matter of gonorrhœa, or leucorrhœa.

This disease may therefore with much propriety be called “the purulent ophthalmia.” It would seem, that it could only arise, at the age at which it appears, from some foreign matter, as of leucorrhœa, or gonorrhœa. We are firmly persuaded that one or other of these matters is the cause of the affection under consideration; and for the following reasons:—

1st. Because it always makes its appearance within ten or twelve days after birth—a period in which such a cause might be supposed to act.

2d. Because in every instance in which we have met with this affection, we learnt upon inquiry that the mother was subject to leucorrhœa; and in some few instances, in loose characters, to gonorrhœa.

3d. The suddenness, extent, and severity of the inflammation, together with the profuseness of the suppuration, would seem to denote the application of some violent irritant to this tender and susceptible organ.

On this account we direct the nurse, where we suspect this condition of the mother, at the first washing, to be very particular in applying plenty of water to the eyes. We have taught this doctrine of the remote causes of purulent ophthalmia nearly thirty years; and have recommended the plan of freely washing the eyes for the same period, and we have reason to believe, we have in some instances prevented it altogether, and in others, have rendered it much lighter. In one case, where we knew gonorrhœa to be present in a violent degree, we prevented this affection almost altogether, by very carefully having the eyes washed with warm water for fifteen or twenty minutes, and pouring it upon the eyes in a full stream. The eyes suffered, however, a little; a slight inflammation supervened, but was relieved in two or three days by the mucilage of sassafras alone. We are of opinion, however, that the inconvenience the eyes suffered may be pretty justly attributed to the discipline they underwent in washing.



The mode of treatment is perhaps precisely the same in both instances—or, at least, we know nothing that more certainly controuls the inflammation of gonorrhœa than that of leucorrhœa, unless in desperate cases of the former we might apply some mercurial preparation, for instance, a few grains of calomel suspended in one ounce of gum arabic solution, and applied three or four times a day, in addition to the remedies we shall presently mention. But this is altogether hypothetical, and we beg it may only be received as a suggestion.

Nothing can be more unsatisfactory than Dr. Underwood's description of ophthalmia purulenta, nor any thing more vague than his plan of cure, if it even deserved that name. Instead of ordering his remedies to the different stages of the complaint, and pointing out the time, and the signs by which that time may be known, at which it would be proper to change them, he confounds under one general direction, opposite and incompatible remedies.

After vaguely describing the disease as just stated, he recommends in one breath, purging, leeching, and blistering to the back, neck, and behind the ears, the last to be renewed every three or four days. "The edges of the eyelids should be *greased* throughout the day; at night, a lead water poultice; but if the eye be affected by the weight of the poultice, it must be removed for rags dipped in cold brandy and water, or some other more astringent lotion." He then adds,

"Throughout the complaint, *astringent and stimulating* applications are to be made use of, unless the complaint be very slight, or sensibly gives way very soon to mere greasing the lids, as it sometimes will." And then gravely declares, that "should emollient poultices and merely cooling collyria be depended upon, the event may be fatal."

I would ask any experienced practitioner, if he could possibly set to work to cure this formidable inflammation by the direction just given? At one moment the eyes are to have blood extracted from them, and then he is immediately to employ astringent and stimulating remedies; "for if you depend," says the Doctor, "upon merely cooling collyria and emollient poultices, the event may be fatal." Yet, with all this apprehension, he directs, just before, that the eyelids may be *greased* at night, which will very often cure the disease alone. We are of opinion, that no greater error can well be committed than the too early use of astringent or stimulating collyria. We are fully persuaded we have seen several eyes destroyed by their ill-timed use.

Mr. Burns also recommends, in the beginning of this disease, "some astringent solution;" than which, we feel it our duty to

say, there cannot well be a more hurtful application. We have been called in consultation several times, where the plan of Dr. Underwood and Mr. Burns had been employed, and from the state of the eyes, when we first saw them, we are altogether convinced that the stimulating or astringent collyrium had done irreparable mischief. We are, therefore, persuaded they never can be successfully employed but after a considerable abatement of the inflammation. Even blisters used too early, we are sure are mischievous, though highly important in the progress of the cure.

This case must be actively pursued by remedies, if any good is to be derived from them; there is no time to temporize; the most vigilant attention must be paid to the eyes, or they quickly perish. We should commence our plan by leeching—about three common sized ones should be applied to each eye (if both be affected); the bleeding from the leeches should be encouraged, for some time by the application of a soft bread and milk poultice, confined between the folds of a piece of fine linen rag. After the bleeding from the leech-wounds ceases, the eyes should be exposed to the air in a very dark room, and should be kept cool by a very weak solution of the acetate of lead in rose water, in the proportion of two grains of the former to an ounce of the latter. This is best employed by washing the surface of the eyes frequently with a fine piece of linen rag wet with the solution. The eyes should not be bandaged up, as the heat does much mischief. Should the eyes betray a disposition to glue up, notwithstanding the frequent moistening, care should be taken to prevent it, by washing them carefully with the mucilage of the pith of sassafras every hour or two. We should keep the bowels freely open, or rather purged; and for this purpose we have found the following answer extremely well:—

Take submuriate of mercury, three grains;  
powdered jalap from four to eight grains.

One of these powders to be given morning and evening, mixed in a drop of any common syrup. Should this quantity not purge sufficiently, let another powder be given; should it operate too freely, give less.

If the inflammation be not abated by these means in the course of forty-eight hours, the leeching should be repeated, and the other treatment recommended strictly followed. So soon as the violence of the inflammation is overcome, we should apply a blister to each temple, which should be encouraged to discharge, by dressing with basilicon or weak savine ointment. Dr. James says, that “blisters have occasionally been applied over the closed eyelids with the best effect.” We can say nothing of



this from our own practice; but it can be safely relied upon, coming from such authority.

After the disease is so much weakened as to permit the child to open its eyes in a dark room, we may safely begin to use some weak, mild collyrium with advantage; the best that has presented itself to us is a very weak solution of the acetate of zinc, as follows:—

Take sulphate of zinc, and superacetate of lead,  
of each eight grains;  
distilled water, six ounces.

The eyes to be washed with this four or five times a day.

It is found to be very useful to wash the matter from the eyes by injecting warm water between the lids, three or four times a day, by means of a small syringe. The mother's milk is also thought to be very useful in preventing the lids from sticking together, by being frequently milked upon them.

The child is sometimes afflicted with pain in the bowels, which occasions it to cry very much; this should be prevented by giving it a little mild anodyne of almost any kind, half a drop to a drop of laudanum in a little sweetened water, or a little of Dalby's carminative, from time to time, will be found a very good substitute for the laudanum, or the mixture prescribed above, which will not produce constipation.

#### ON THE CHEMICAL AND MEDICINAL PROPERTIES OF THE BUXTON WATER. BY DR. SAUNDERS. NO. I.

The host of invalids who flock during the Summer months to the various celebrated baths of this country induce us to give a short outline of the value of each, and we shall commence with Buxton, which has long been celebrated for its warm springs, and they appear to have enjoyed considerable reputation in the cure of various diseases, for a longer period without interruption, than almost any mineral water in the kingdom. As early as the year 1572, a Treatise was written on the virtues of this spring, by a Dr. Jones of Derby, and it appears at that time to have been a place of great resort from all the neighbouring counties. Several remains of Roman antiquity have also been discovered at or near this spot, which makes it probable that this fountain was not unknown to that people.

The warm springs of Buxton, rise into day through a number of small fissures in a hard calcareous free-stone, which forms the upper stratum of the soil. The springs are very numerous, and the quantity of water is always abundantly sufficient for the large consumption required to supply the nume-



rous baths, and the other purposes for which it is employed. A particular description of the several springs is not here necessary for our present purpose; it will be sufficient to observe, that the original and most ancient fountain is St. Ann's Well, which is now enclosed in an elegant stone building; and that there are several other warm springs besides, all of which appear to be precisely similar to St. Ann's, and are received into a number of beautiful and convenient baths, public and private, where every care is taken to preserve the heat and cleanness of the water, and to consult the accommodation of the bathers.

In sensible properties the Buxton water cannot be distinguished from common spring water heated to the same temperature. It is perfectly clear and colourless, and does not become turbid by being exposed to the air for any length of time, nor does it leave any deposit, or form any incrustation on the pipes or stone channels through which it flows in its course to the several baths. It is entirely void of smell or taste; it sparkles a little when first drawn, but apparently not more than the water of many common springs. Its temperature in the gentlemen's bath, is invariably eighty-two degrees, which therefore entitles us to consider Buxton water as a thermal spring, though but low in the scale of these natural waters.

A thin column of steam generally hovers over the surface of the bath during the cool of the morning and evening, and sometimes during the whole day, which last circumstance is considered as a sure indication of approaching rain. The principal peculiarity in the appearance of this spring, is a very large quantity of a permanently elastic vapour, which rises along with the water through the crevices in the floor of the bath, forming clusters of bubbles of various dimensions, that pass through the water without mixing with it, and break as soon as they reach the surface. These bubbles may easily be collected by any vessel filled with water, and inverted so as to intercept them in their course upwards. The nature of this air was first ascertained by Dr. Pearson, as we shall mention presently.

The chemical analysis of Buxton water exhibits a few foreign contents both solid and gaseous, which are detected in the usual manner by re-agents, or by evaporation and subsequent examination of the products. On applying the various tests, the following appearances take place. No change is produced by adding to fresh Buxton water tincture of litmus, tincture of galls, or Prussian alkali; shewing by the first, that no uncombined acid exists, and by the two latter the absence of iron, or any other metal. A slight green is occasioned by the addition of syrup of violets, indicating carbonated lime in the water.

Lime water produces a slight precipitate, and iron filings shaken with the fresh water for a few minutes gives it a slight chalybeate impregnation, both of which shew the presence of a small quantity of carbonic acid. An earthy salt is detected by adding a fixed alkali, and the muriatic acid by nitrate of silver. The water in a slight degree curdles soap, which effect is prevented, by adding one grain of alkali to one ounce of the fresh water. Nothing sulphureous appears either from the smell, or by those delicate tests, the solutions of lead and silver. By evaporation to dryness, Dr. Pearson found in the gallon of Buxton water only fifteen grains of residuum, of which he estimates  $1\frac{3}{4}$  grains to be muriate of soda,  $2\frac{1}{2}$  grains to be sulphate of lime, and  $10\frac{1}{2}$  grains to be carbonate of lime.

A quantity of air was long observed to be both contained in fresh Buxton water, and to rise up along with it through the crevices of the pavement of the bath. The perfect insignificance of the solid contents, led chemists to pay more attention to the gaseous products: the gas which rises through the water was supposed to be carbonic acid; but Dr. Pearson by his experiments fully ascertained that this was a mistake, and that it is in fact azotic gas mixed with a small portion of atmospheric air. Buxton water contains about  $\frac{1}{4}$  of its bulk of air in true chemical combination. Sixteen pints of the water, exposed to a boiling heat for a considerable time, yielded about four to four and a half ounces measures of an air, which was scarcely diminished by nitrous gas, did not explode when mixed with common air on the application of a candle, proved fatal to animal life, was in a very small degree absorbed by caustic alkali, and by all these tests proved to be almost pure azotic gas, or exactly the same as that which rises in bubbles along with the water without mixing with it. There is, however, a small proportion of carbonic acid contained in Buxton water, but not more than is sufficient to hold dissolved the carbonate of lime, of which it contains a greater quantity than of any other solid ingredient, and therefore not uncombined.

The analysis of other chemists agree sufficiently with that of Dr. Pearson with respect to the solid contents, to which their attention was principally directed. The highest estimate is twenty grains in the gallon. Dr. Higgins reckons  $17\frac{1}{2}$  grains, and the proportion of each ingredient nearly the same as Dr. Pearson.

The general result, therefore, of the analysis of Buxton water is the following: it is a remarkably pure water, and possesses no peculiar sensible properties, except that of a higher temperature than all the adjacent springs, and as this circumstance



is invariable in every season, the source of the heat depends on some internal cause, in which it differs from the cold natural waters. The little solid matter which it contains is such as is found in every common spring, and is of the most inactive kind. It holds in solution, however, a small quantity of azotic gas, as this air is very imperfectly soluble in water. In this respect only does the chemical analysis of Buxton exhibit any thing different from the pump water in common use.

The water of Buxton is employed largely both in external and internal use, and the one is often applicable in cases where the other would be prejudicial. With regard to its use as a bath, we may observe, that there can be no reasonable ground for considering it here at least any other than common water. The great recommendation of the Buxton baths is the copious supply of a very pure clean water of the high temperature of eighty two degrees, and which is always the same in every property, and abundantly sufficient for all the baths that enrich and decorate this situation. As the temperature of eighty-two degrees is several degrees below that of the human body, there is a slight shock of cold felt on the first immersion into this bath; but this is almost immediately succeeded by a highly soothing and pleasurable glow over the whole body, which persons often express to be as if the skin was anointed with warm cream, and is entirely the effect of temperature combined with that of simple moisture. On account of the slighness of the shock of immersion, very delicate and irritable habits, and especially parts weakened by disease, can generally bear this degree of cold, and overcome it by a very small reaction, to produce which, appears to be often a most salutary effort of the constitution.

Hence, the Buxton bath is become almost a technical term for any bath heated to the highest degree that is compatible with giving some sensation of cold when the body is first plunged into it. The cases most relieved by Buxton water used externally, and which include the greater number of complaints affecting invalids who resort to these springs, are those in which a loss of action, and sometimes even of perfect sensation, has come on particular limbs, owing to long or violent inflammation or external injury, where the first increase of action is past. Thus, the chronic rheumatism in all its forms, succeeding to the acute, and where the inflammation has been chiefly seated in moving parts, is often wonderfully relieved by this bath; and the healthy actions is soon so far restored, as to enable the patient to use the more powerful remedy of sea bathing, or the common cold bath. On the other hand, the loss of action produced by true paralysis will seldom admit of



much relief by a Buxton bath, but requires the more direct stimulus of heat.

The use of Buxton water, when considered as an internal medicine of great activity and considerable efficacy, is a subject that demands some attention, as much controversy has arisen as to the source of its medicinal powers. It is not easy to collect from the writers on this subject what are the precise sensible effects produced on the body by a moderate dose; or wherein they differ from those of mere water. In fact, it is at all times difficult, even in those mineral springs whose foreign contents are the most indisputably active, to determine the agency of each, intimately mixed as they are with so large a portion of their watery vehicle. The high activity of Buxton water, and its inflammatory tendency, have been points much insisted on by several medical writers on this subject, and these have been attributed either to something yet undiscovered by chemical analysis, or to the only substances which we know are contained in the water, that can be supposed to have any active powers, viz. the gaseous contents.

Agreeably to this opinion, concerning the power of Buxton water in producing as much mischief where misapplied, as benefit where used prudently, its application to various diseases has been regulated by long experience. Buxton water is found of considerable service in a number of symptoms of defective digestion and derangement of the alimentary organs, consequent to a life of high indulgence and intemperance. A judicious use of this simple remedy will often relieve the distressing symptoms of heart-burn, flatulency, and sickness; and, if persevered in, will increase the appetite, render the secretions more regular, and improve the general health and spirits that are so intimately connected with the functions of the digestive organs. A large number of the invalids that resort to Buxton are of this class. The water appears to produce various effects on the bowels. Not unfrequently a spontaneous diarrhoea is the consequence of its use for some days, and this is always salutary; but it is more common, especially in habits where the action of the bowels is naturally sluggish, for costiveness to come on during a course of the water, which must be remedied by aperient medicines.

Another class of disorders much relieved by the internal use of Buxton water, is the painful complaints of the kidneys and bladder connected with the formation of calculus. The pain of these affections is much relieved by the water, and its use as a bath will often assist its employment as an internal medicine. The comparative purity of the water may here be a principal cause of its efficacy. Buxton has been much recommended in

various cases of gout, especially where the high inflammation of particular limbs has gone off, and where it has left either a number of dyspeptic symptoms, or a rigidity or impaired action in the seat of the disease. In this disorder, however, the use of Buxton water seems to me to be very ambiguous, and seldom admissible.

We are advised by Dr. Denman always to add some aromatic tincture to the water taken in such cases, without which it would not be safe or advisable: but it appears to me generally hazardous to employ such means of qualifying the medicinal powers of a mineral water, as highly apt to bring on a habit of accustoming the stomach to the excessive stimulus of ardent spirits, under the insidious form of a stomachic medicine, and can hardly fail of doing much more injury than will be counteracted by the good produced by any mineral water so exhibited. Indeed I think it may be laid down as a general rule, that the only additions which it is advisable to use, are, either that of mere temperature, which is often necessary in giving the cold medicinal waters to delicate stomachs, or that of an additional quantity of any of the natural ingredients, as for instance where a purging chalybeate may be strengthened in its operation, by some vitriolated magnesia or soda. Sometimes, however, the stomach of a gouty patient will bear the Buxton water in its simple state, and will derive much advantage from its gradual action on the general habit. As an external application in gout, Buxton water is sometimes found of service, though in general the warmer temperature of that of Bath is the best fitted to restore healthy functions to parts so diseased.

We are directed to avoid the use of Buxton water in all cases of active inflammation, more especially those of the young and plethoric, where there is naturally a strong tendency to a determination to the lungs. These cautions are founded on the supposed heating properties of Buxton water, and certainly we must allow that in such cases of increased circulation and fever, unattended with any idiopathic derangement of the organs of digestion, it is not to this mineral spring that we should trust to check these dangerous symptoms. From what has been said, it will appear that it is chiefly in chronic cases, unattended with much vascular action, that Buxton might be visited with advantage by invalids; and the numbers that annually receive here very important relief, afford a very honourable testimony to the efficacy of its waters.

The doses prescribed by the earlier practitioners were, according to the custom of former times, much more abundant than are employed at present, and would make the modern directions quite superfluous. Now, however, it is considered as a full



course to take two glasses, of about a third of a pint each before breakfast; interposing between the two a little gentle exercise, and to repeat the same quantity again between breakfast and dinner. It is seldom taken medicinally in the evening.

A calculation of the actual quantity of foreign contents in these doses will exhibit very minute portions of very inactive substances. A single dose of a third of a pint contains about  $\frac{1}{12}$  of a grain of common salt, and about half a grain of sulphate of lime and carbonate of lime, for the solid contents: and for the gaseous, two scruples in bulk, or less than a tea-spoonful of an air which is mostly azotic gas. Supposing therefore four of these doses taken in the day, the patient will have taken about one-third of a grain of common salt, two grains of calcareous salts, two drachms and two scruples in bulk, or about three tea-spoonfuls of azotic gas; the whole dissolved in one pint and a third of lukewarm water.

It should be added, that the inhabitants of the place employ the same water as common drink, and for all domestic uses which its hardness will admit of, and hence the invalid will probably take much more of the water than is prescribed, by its being used at table and for all culinary purposes.

As the cases for which Buxton is recommended are mostly chronic, a considerable time of residence is requisite in order to secure the benefits that may arise from this spring; and the splendid buildings that decorate this spot are so well furnished with every thing that can contribute to accommodation, convenience, and comfort, as to leave very little to be desired by the tenderest invalid of fashion and opulence.

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#### DEFECTIVE MOTION OF THE HANDS AND FEET, AND THE MODE OF CURE.

It has been truly said, that there is a graceful way of doing most things; and it might have been added, that what is commonly practised is generally most slovenly performed. The awkward use of the hands and feet probably is the best illustration of this position; for though all persons walk and use their hands, few do with propriety, which has, it may be, arisen from some bodily deformity; and when that is not the case, is the consequence of a slovenly habit.

There are some people who walk in a waddling way, which manner of walking, when it does not proceed from a bad habit, or some accident or other, is the effect of a weakness of the haunches; for as they serve to bind the lower extremities with



the trunk, if this binding is weak, there must necessarily be a sort of lameness on both sides, and this occasions that waddling which we now speak of.

A great many young people are liable to this deformity, and frequently it continues with them for life. It is commonly owing to the negligence of nurses and servant-maids, the most part of whom allow the children committed to their care to walk of themselves, and without help, before those parts which ought to support the weight of their bodies have acquired sufficient strength to perform that office aright.

When this deformity proceeds from the above cause, in order to correct it you must have recourse to such girdles as make a compression all round the belly, and are strong and well furnished towards the haunches. This compression gives a firmness and steadiness in walking, by strengthening the loins; but to strengthen them still more, they must be bathed evening and morning for several months, with a decoction of Provence roses, and the shell of a pomegranate, boiled in strong red wine. Into two pounds of tent wine put a handful of Provence roses, an ounce of pomegranate rind, and the half of a middle sized quince, and boil them all together for about a quarter of an hour. This remedy, when it is made use of in time, and continued long enough, produces great effects.

Others have an unwieldy awkward way of walking, which generally proceeds from thence, that when we take children abroad to walk with us, we do not proportion our pace well enough to theirs.

When a child walks with his nurse, or the maid that keeps him, or his mother, &c., whoever it is that walks with him, ought to take care not to go so fast as to make the child overstretch himself. This is a thing of very great consequence.

The legs, when one walks, make a pair of compasses, as it were, which are more or less opened; but the legs of a child being shorter than those of a person that is come to his full growth, the child, who would keep up with the pace of the grown person whom he is walking with, and, unluckily for himself, is proud that he can do it, opens the compasses of his legs beyond what their short measure conveniently permits, and this accustoms him to make long strides, and gives him this clownish awkwardly way of walking, which he keeps after he is grown up, unless a great deal of care be taken in time to break him of this habit, which is no easy matter.

I do not mention the injury which walking with such precipitation may do the child besides; this of itself may put them so much out of breath, as to give occasion to some relaxation

or rupture of the vessels in the thorax. How many children have become asthmatic, and how many have become consumptive, from this very cause! and how many mothers have need of the above advice, both for themselves and for those to whom they entrust their children.

There are others again who can neither walk nor stand, with a tolerable good grace, and this alone is sufficient to make them be despised in the eye of the world. You know what La Bruyere says upon this subject; that a fool neither enters a room, nor retires, nor sits down, nor rises up, nor stands, nor walks like a man of parts.

This maxim of La Bruyere's is frequently false, but in general it is conformed to the manners of the times; and these we must have a regard to if we would succeed in the world. I say it is frequently false, because a fool, as he has nothing about him capable of being cultivated except his person, will frequently behave himself with a better grace than a man of parts, who, with all the success imaginable, has made it his principal study to cultivate his mind. The celebrated Voiture had a very ordinary air, and they say he was a man of mean appearance. La Fontaine too, who is so well known by his fables, had nothing either graceful or genteel about his person. And Despreaux, that incomparable poet, neither entered a room, nor went out of it, nor sat down, nor rose up, nor stood, nor walked, like a man of parts, if by such a one is meant a man who has a good grace. Even La Bruyere himself, whom we quoted just now, and who by the characters which he has left us, has shewn himself to be a man of a very good genius, but perhaps as little of a graceful air as any man in the world. La Bruyere's maxim then is not at all certain, and it is possible he did not advance it as true, in that book which he has justly enough entitled, "The Manners of the present Age." However it is, I advise parents to take care to use all the methods necessary, that their children, after they are arrived at a certain age, may neither enter a room, nor go out of it, nor sit down, nor rise up, nor stand, nor walk, in such a manner as to make them pass any where for fools.

In vain, with respect to the gay part of mankind, do you form their minds, unless you procure them at the same time such an address as to keep them above contempt. Take care then that you teach them to manage their feet right, whether in walking, sitting or standing, &c., but at the same time give them to understand that this accomplishment is nothing without the qualities of the mind, and that they are errant fools whose only study is to use their legs handsomely. With this precaution,



you may venture very safely to make them learn the different attitudes which are proper to be used upon certain occasions.

For this end put them under the care of the best dancing-masters, and do not grudge the expence. I know there are some persons who make a scruple of letting their children learn to dance, but it is not to such parents at all that I speak here; it is only to those who know that dancing (such dancing I mean as is not theatrical) is at least harmless; and I can tell them that there is nothing properer than this exercise, for forming the bodies of young people.

I own it would be much better to have an awkward ungraceful air all one's life, than on purpose to procure a genteel one, to have recourse to such means as might have a bad effect upon the morals; but it would be very difficult to prove that dancing is of this kind. Some authors have been at great pains to persuade people of this, but it is all mere fancy, and not true in fact. Of this class are the arguments (if they may be called so) which are set forth in a book entitled, "Rules for the right Education of Children;" where the author, to engage parents not to allow their daughters to learn to dance, tells them that when a girl learns this art she is ruined; upon which he quotes the example of Herodias's daughter, as a thing which ought to inspire young women with an invincible horror at dancing.

Sheridan also has tended to strengthen this idea, by his denunciation of it in his elegant comedy of the Rivals; and the inflated sentiment of one of his characters, has been adopted as the author's opinion.

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#### ON THE PROPERTIES OF VARIOUS KINDS OF NUTRIMENT.

Nothing is more material to health than to know the nature of what we feed upon; and as the same thing varied by different proportions acquires different effects, it behoves us to make remarks occasionally on all we eat and drink.

##### *Barley*

Is of a cooling and viscous nature; if then it be boiled in water and clean, it cools and dilutes in fevers, it wraps up all our salts of any kind, and it is used in various manners; if it be boiled it is glutinous and cooling, by the first it binds, we mean if its rind be taken off; and by the latter it retards the circulation, for whatever is light and sticking curbs the progressive motion: it is now in use for a sham asses milk; half barley water and half asses milk are mixed and drank in a morning in consumptive cases; and it well supplies asses milk where it



cannot be got so plentifully, or where it is apt to curdle upon the stomach, notwithstanding all the means that are used. Ptisans are made of barley, which the French are fond of for cooling; however, whatever good properties it has, it is prejudicial to the stomach, through which it passes; because it relaxes its coats, and weakens its walls, and digestion is much impaired by its too frequent use. If it be of use to any great sharpness of the blood, we must for a while have patience with this injury, and when we have got a victory over the sharpness, it becomes us to string up the stomach again to its proper tone, by some bitter and astringent wine, wherefore roman wormwood infused in red wine will soon repair this damage. It is from the weakness of the stomach, which its use infers, that wind arises, slime also besmears the stomach, and both are helped by bitters and astringents; if the slime be in any quantity, as will be known by a load at stomach, a gentle vomit ought to preceede the use of these bitters.

Its flower or fine powder is good to make into poultices to soften hard tumours, and give ease to pains arising from inflammations or pains in the side called pleurisies; because as its smooth parts are from the oiliness of the grain, which you may convince yourself of by drying the barley, by bruising it, by seorching it in a frying-pan, and by pouring on any sort of simple water, and lastly by pressing it in a press, you get the oil of the barley, which will relax the parts, that by the inflammation are become impassable for the blood and juices through them, and they give way, and that troublesome idea of pain is abated. It is used moreover in poultices for pains of the joints and defluxions upon them, if you mix it with vinegar and with ship pitch, for then it sticks close to the part, and serves as an intereceptive or a straitner of the vessels, which being too wide give way to a settling of humours upon them.

Acids alone with barley will make it stiff and hard, and serve for the same purposes, and such a poultice is good to take off scales; if, for example, you boil barley-mal in sharp vinegar or in vinegar made stronger, with adding a little spirit of salt to it, it will be glutinous and repelling, and leprous eruptions are repelled by it, to what advantage let those whose concern it is look to it; for I believe it was never yet known that these stubborn scabs were driven into the blood with impunity or without damage, unless a provision was made for the humour to pass through some other door; and therefore if we try this experiment, I desire either some certain diuretic or purge be given frequently to receive and convey this malignant humour out by the kidneys or bowels, or it is to be feared they are ill advised. For this purpose take every other morning as much of an infu-

sion of senna as will move you thrice, and next day take fifteen drops of sweet spirit of nitre in a glass of wine twice a day; you will meet with the manner of making an infusion of senna in any dispensatory. Much otherwise does barley operate on human bodies when it is fermented and brewed into liquor, than when it is boiled; or given inwardly in fine flour; for in the latter case it binds by being glutinous; but in habitual purgings where it has been wrought into beer or ale, it certainly loosens the belly, and the newer it is, the more certain is this effect; and tender constitutions who are troubled with windy colics, or frequent loose stools, should avoid it as they would the bite of a viper or any poison. This is settled among physicians at present, as an axiom. It is a nourishing grain, and its juice is looked upon to nourish more than its dried flour. The ptisan is both food and a medicine.

#### *Wheat*

Is more nourishing than barley if it be made into bread, and be unwrought or unleavened; it is doughy, and very hard to digest, because its viscid and gluey parts being put in motion, cannot be thoroughly divided, at least in the short time it stays in the bowels, and therefore does it create winds, colics, and fatal obstructions. This is observed in countries where this bread is much used, which we are told they do in Scotland, and in the northern parts; so that were it not for their hard and obstinate labour, it would be impossible for such people to escape diseases, and these disorders are increased if they eat it new from the oven, for then it abounds with water, and sticks to the walls every where. Age betters it, because bread grows lighter by age, and loses in weight. If this be true, as it certainly is, what must we say of pancakes and such cakes as are fried, without having any thing in them to make them light; they, in effect, grow a mere glue, and work within us as such, and make us liable to all diseases arising from a glaucy and gross blood; to wit, to suppressions, to swelled legs, to white swellings, and the rest. However, when it is fermented with yeast, and not made greasy, and if it be kept to a moderate age, it is very nourishing; and is as thick as is convenient for a circulating fluid, which must cohere in a certain degree. Our housewives are not pleased with their crusts of pies, unless they be greasy and doughy; it is not hard to guess at the consequences of such a diet from what we have said, since our blood is not to be made too thick; for then it would not run in our veins, and we should be destroyed by the very means we make use of to subsist with. From this statement you may know, why in fluxes of the belly,



we make use of hasty-puddings made up of fine flour of wheat, because, as a glue, it retards the descent of our victuals; it plasters up the mouths of the glands, and hinders us from having so frequent occasions; besides, it tempers the sharp and fretting juices of the guts, and so, in some measure, strikes at the root of the disorder. It is also from the same manner of acting, that its flour is made use of inwardly to curb all fluxes, even of blood, from any part; for let it arise from what cause soever, there is a necessity to close the gaping of the orifice, and it may be supposed to act upon an open vessel, as glue; and the very blood running that way more rapidly than to any other place, will carry, in a sort of hurry, all that is thrown into it, to that door very soon. If we may compare trifles to momentous affairs; we see how readily a small leak is stopped with a handful of fine flour thrown into a vessel; it runs to the hole in an instant, and glues it up; and, indeed, this is consonant to mechanics, where the fluids are observed to move rapidly through a small passage, and to determine the rout of the whole fluids thither. It is conceivable and visible of what a glutinous nature wheat is, when being steeped in water, as fine flour, and made up into any shape, and dried in the sun, or warm shade, upon a brick, or broad tile, is what we call starch, which, we all know, boils into a glue, softer or harder, as it has more or less water joined with it; and it is this starch which is made of our bread, by the force of digestion and dissolution by our drink, that nourishes and supplies our lymphatic juices, and all other smooth nourishment, and hence is the use of bread so universal.

### *Rice*

Is more viscous than wheat, and is therefore more binding, and more windy diet than it; it is, however, very nourishing, and is used for diet in purgings; we mean it is nourishing, inasmuch as they who use it should have it greatly mixed with a watery liquor, for otherwise this diet never passes well. It is amazing to us to find our cooks so fond of making their rice milks and creams so very thick, unless they would thereby oblige those that feed upon them to drink plentifully afterwards, which they must do, if they design to receive no damage thereby. In most particulars it resembles wheat in its virtues. The nurses make a broth of it, in fluxes of the belly, and we think if the white decoction were made of this broth, it would answer the physician's ends much better in stopping of fluxes, because, as the burnt hartshorn is absorbing, this being assuaging, the humours would be both sucked up and sheathed at one and the same time. As for the rest, we shall conclude with this caution



that as rice is dearer than wheat, it is more used in our kitchens than wheat, and many uses are made of it there, which must be regulated so as to avoid making it too gluey, or the feeders upon it must dilute well after with water.

*Oatmeal Victuals*

Are not so glutinous as wheat and rice; their jelly is slippery, and therefore more oily than either of the former. Flummery is the jelly of oatmeal; and it is a very nourishing diet, because it is thick, but not sticking. It passes through all the capillaries, or small vessels, without stopping them up. It is good for a diet in asthmatical and phthisical people, because it helps up their phlegm. It is good in vapourish constitutions, where there is a great deal of sourness in their bowels, because it smooths and licks up that sharp humour. It is a light diet, and keeps the body open. It is better victuals to stick to, than either wheat or rice; indeed, the taste is not quite so agreeable to the palate, but it is more wholesome than either. The gruel commonly made of it, is no other than the jelly of it dissolved in water; and if gruel were strained well, and boiled up to a glue, it might serve to make an extempore gruel with warm water, as the solid soup now does, and be carried about as it is. All grain whatever, is more or less windy, because it affords a thick nourishment, but oatmeal is the least so, because the air breaks easily through its parts, and escapes without raising colics.

*Millet Seed*

Is dry and gluey nourishment; we make no bread of it in England, but it is much used in puddings. As it is gluey and earthy, it stops fluxes, and therefore a decoction of millet would do better than that of rice to make the white decoction of, because it would afford an earthy, as well as a gluey substance, and bind more. Whoever feeds upon it, must be careful to drink well afterwards, lest his blood grow too thick thereby. In these puddings the cooks ought to put some spices to help to correct their thickness, and to carry off those winds that follow them.

*Pease*

Are of different sorts, but all of them are windy, and afford gross nourishment. The soups, the puddings, and the dishes made of them, must be well seasoned with pepper, or some such hot spice, or they who feed on them would be subject to violent colics; however, when they are green, they are good for

sharp and salt bloods, because they are sweet and smooth ; and when poor people are troubled with such a sharpness of humours, they should persist in this diet in Summer ; wherefore our sailors, when they find themselves troubled with the scurvy in warm countries, use this diet at land, and it cures them, if they are not far gone. I cannot say that they agree with the English so well for diet, because our humours are naturally gross, or inclined to grossness, and therefore are they used as a change only, because they, who out of wantonness indulge themselves with them, soon begin to feel their ill effects, and are troubled with colics and pains at their stomachs, and require much physic and warm medicines to extirpate them, and strengtheners of the stomach also to repair the digestive faculty, which is impaired.

### *Beans*

Are hard of digestion, of whatever kind; the kidney beans are mealy, and not so gluey as the common, and therefore are they not quite so windy; but they are apt to turn sour in our stomachs, and to raise gripes. To keep the eaters of them from damage, they must not eat them without a good deal of spice, and they should drink a sufficient quantity of liquor after them; that their mealy parts may not turn a paste, either in the bowels or blood. The flour of the common beans is used externally for poultices against an inflammation, from wounds, or in the breasts and elsewhere; to wit, they boil the flour in water, up to the consistence of a hasty-pudding, and mix it with vinegar, and apply it warm to the parts inflamed.

This is the midwife's poultice for women whose milk they endeavour to disperse; and sometimes the flour mixed with fennugreek seed, and red rose leaves, is made into a poultice for inflamed eyes; many other uses, too tedious to be named, are made of them by surgeons, but mostly for dispersing tumours, and softening. In general, the greener all beans are, the harder are they of digestion; and as we never eat them but when they are green, it follows, that they hurt us in raising colics, and hindering sleep in a particular manner, but principally because they contain much wind in them, wrapt up in a gross juice, and the spirits made up of such foreign nourishment are nimble and viscous; that is, they contain air and slime; from the first they attempt to frisk, but are fettered by their viscosity, and they must then affect the nerves, as they do the stomach; that is, the airy parts endeavour to escape out of the slimy parts; but being detained in the bubbles, the air, the slime and stomach, are all drawn together, and the stomach is



convulsed, or twitched and pained, the nerves are shaken, and sleep is prevented.

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PROFESSOR HOFFMAN'S METHOD OF CLEANING AND PRESERVING THE TEETH.

In regard to dentrifices, the methods of cleaning the teeth are various. Most people are too free in the use of small brushes, or bits of cloth or linen, which, by frequent indiscreet use, often ruin the gums and teeth. I would therefore abolish them, and in their stead, advise a piece of sponge dipped in warm water, in which should be dissolved a piece of soap, as preferable to all other methods whatever. Soap is known to be of a penetrating attenuating and detergent nature, and therefore not only most proper for cleaning the teeth, but also very serviceable in most disorders of the gums; in short, it may be used with the utmost propriety: the only objection to be made, is the offence it may give on account of its taste: but custom will render it familiar, and sufficiently recompense the trouble of using it.

I would recommend the morning as the most convenient time for cleaning the teeth; but before using the sponge it will be necessary to scrape off the gluey substance, which adheres to their surface with a quill; and after cleaning them with the sponge and soap, the mouth may be rinsed with Hungary water, spirit of lavender, &c., diluted with warm water.

The scurvy of the gums is dependent on a bad state of the constitution, the relieving of which last will infallibly cure the other. When the teeth become loose, from whatever cause, a tea-spoonful of the tincture of myrrh, mixed with a tea cupful of water, to wash the mouth with twice or thrice a day, will be the most efficacious remedy.

It has become a great fashion, with the ladies more especially, to have their teeth scaled.

The design of the operation is to beautify the colour of the teeth, by removing the tartar or scurf which adheres to their surface, and is done with iron instruments made for that purpose. But whoever will consider attentively the nature of the teeth, and of this petrified substance, will conceive, in many cases, the impropriety of the practice. The danger is, that by endeavouring to detach this matter, some of the enamelled part may be taken away with it; indeed these instruments, by being pressed upon the vitreous substance, may risk its ruin, both as they are of a nature extremely hard to approach the teeth, and as their metallic particles may insinuate themselves into the pores of the enamel, and by that means do mischief.



The tartar is generally accumulated on that part of the tooth which joins the gum, and covers more or less, according as it increases in quantity on that part we call the neck of the tooth, which it separates from the gum. This is the true state of the disease.

Now if the operator, in consequence of taking away this matter should expose the neck of the tooth bare, it would be liable to all injuries of the air, the aliment, or whatever comes near it, and a caries the natural effect. If it is the colour only which induces us to try the remedy, it were better to be content with this inconvenience, than subject ourselves to its ill effects. By following the method I advise, there will be but little necessity for exposing ourselves to this operation; which it must be owned, however, the skilful artist frequently practises with good success.

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#### NEW REMEDY FOR DYSENTERY, CHOLERA, AND DIARRHŒA.

In the Edinburgh Medical and Surgical Journal for July last, Thomas Hope, Esq. surgeon at Chatham, has published some "observations on the powerful effects of nitrous acid and opium" in bowel complaints. After some prefatory remarks, Mr. Hope informs us that he was made acquainted by accident, more than twenty-six years ago, with the efficacy of this remedy in dysentery. Since that period he has continued to use it with unvaried success, in all cases, in his private and public practice. "In 1821 many cases of cholera and diarrhœa occurred on board the *Ganymede*, of which I was surgeon, all of which were treated successfully with the acid mixture. In 1824, in the month of September, seventy-one cases of disorder of the bowels occurred, many of which were remarkably severe. Not one of the patients died; not one of them had occasion to take more than five doses; the greater number only two; and one only had occasion for medical attention beyond the second day, as may be seen by the books of H. M. S. *Dolphin*, of which I was then surgeon. On board the same ship, in July 1825, no less than 264 cases of colic, dysentery, cholera, and diarrhœa occurred, owing in a great degree to the unusual and intense heat of the weather, which was severely felt throughout the kingdom. Of these not one died, and eighty-five were so soon relieved, that they were scarcely absent from duty, the acid having so speedily produced its usual good effect."

Mr. Hope confesses that most of these cases were very slight; but he adds, "I am fully persuaded, that out of such a number of cases, two or three at least of them, under the ordinary treatment,

would have proved either lingering or fatal. The form of the medicine, as I have used it in all the cases here referred to, is as under:—

Take nitrous acid, one drachm;  
camphor mixture, eight ounces; Mix, and add  
tincture of opium, forty drops.

One fourth part to be taken every three or four hours.

“A small addition of syrup of red poppies improves not only the appearance of the mixture, but, in some instances, it has appeared to increase its effects.

“In chronic dysentery, the dose of two ounces three times a day is quite sufficient; the remedy is grateful to the taste, abates thirst, soon removes the intensity of pain, and procures, in general, a speedy and permanent relief. No previous preparation is required, nor any other care whilst taking it, except the keeping of the hands and feet warm, preserving the body as much as possible from exposure to extreme cold, or currents of air, and making use of warm barley water, or thin gruel, and a diet of sago or tapioca.”

Mr. Hope adds that he tried *nitric* instead of *nitrous* acid, but found it not in any way beneficial to his patients.

One of the editors of this journal has availed himself of Mr. Hope's recommendation concerning nitrous acid and opium. He has used Mr. Hope's formula in a bad case of dysentery, which had resisted a great variety of treatment. The patient assured him that his calls to the stool were repeated frequently every five minutes—in spite of opium and sugar of lead—of injections of landanum and starch, &c. The case yielded in twenty-four hours to Mr. Hope's formula. It has since been employed in two cases of cholera infantum with most speedy and salutary effects. In a case of cholera in an adult, it operated like a charm, and in five or six cases of disordered bowels, it has fully come up to the high character claimed for it by Mr. Hope.

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CURIOUS CASE OF RHEUMATISM OF THE HEART CURED BY  
ACUPUNCTURATION. BY M. PEYRON.

We some time ago noticed a newly revived cure for gout and rheumatism, by means of needles run into the flesh, which we believe was by no means generally relished in this country. Our Gallie neighbours, however, who seem determined to carry their improvements and discoveries to the highest point, have applied the remedy to rheumatism of the heart, and it appears from the following case, with success:—



A woman, eighteen years of age, of good constitution, and of nervous temperament, having lived for some years in a very damp house, began to feel pains in her arms, and afterwards in her legs: they were not fixed, and were at first considered as *growing* pains, but they soon shewed the true nature of the disease. Various means were unsuccessfully employed while she remained in the same house, but as soon as she had quitted it, the pains diminished in intensity, and then disappeared. She was next attacked with severe pain in the region of the heart. This pain was not continued, but frequently recurred, not only from changes of weather, but also from any lively emotion, and sometimes remained for days: it was accompanied with palpitations, which daily became stronger, and at times was accompanied by contraction of all the muscles, so that it was impossible to move any of her limbs. This attack came suddenly, without the patient being previously sensible of any pain. Sometimes it lasted from a quarter of an hour to two, three, or even nine hours; it was often accompanied with loquacity, a kind of extatic delirium, of which the patient recollected nothing. She then had excessive pain at the heart, which beat violently. It may be remarked that, some years before, the patient having lost her mother, had similar attacks, but without pain or palpitation. The disease went on increasing. Frequent bleedings, leeches to the precordial region, left leg, neck, and left arm, were used. Every time that the pain came on, baths, stimulating pediluvia, and alvine injections, were tried, but without effect. It may be remarked, that leeches always increased her sufferings.

She had been in this way four years when M. Peyron saw her. He discovered by the stethoscope that the beating of the heart was stronger than natural; the pain was referred to the space between the cartilages of the fifth and eighth ribs of the left side; the pulse was frequent, full, and intermittent.

After carefully examining her symptoms, M. Peyron came to the conclusion that it was a case of rheumatism of the heart; and in that persuasion, acupuncture was proposed and acceded to by the patient. The girl being placed on her back, leaning to the right side, the first needle, thirteen lines in length, was introduced with a rotatory motion in the space that separates the cartilages of the fifth and sixth ribs, and in a line nearly corresponding to the middle of the cartilage of this last; it was directed towards the heart, going obliquely from below upwards, and from right to left, but without reaching that organ. The patient experienced no pain during the introduction, but when it was finished, she stretched out her limbs, contracting them with violence during some minutes, without uttering a word, and soon



after fell into a delirium similar to that described as resulting from animal magnetism. She said she saw distinctly any object, although her eyes were shut, but she always was deceived when she attempted to tell the number of fingers held up before her. She spoke with astonishing volubility, and answered questions in rather an extravagant manner; and, what is remarkable, could not suffer to be touched. This delirium lasted ten minutes: she awoke as from a deep sleep, was fatigued; and did not recollect any thing she had said; she felt severe pain.—A second needle, of fifteen lines, was then introduced in the same intercostal space, corresponding to the sixth rib. Another attack came on; the loquacity was still greater; she felt no pain, and called out for another needle.—A third acupuncture was made in the same intercostal space, between the two needles already applied, at the spot where the patient complained most of pain, and where the beating of the heart was most sensible. The needle was eighteen lines in length, and was directed from the upper edge of the cartilage of the sixth rib, from above downwards; it pierced the pericardium, and reached without doubt the point of the heart. The sensations it caused were different; the patient felt a shiver, and the attack soon ceased. This sensation, the length of the needle, and its movements, which followed exactly all those of the heart, sufficiently prove that it was in direct communication with that organ; and what may add to the conviction is, that the needle was agitated before the intercostal space into which it was introduced had received the impulse of the heart.

From this time the patient felt no more of her accustomed pain; what she did experience being quite different.

The needles remained nearly forty-eight hours in situ. The puncture of the one last introduced excited much inconvenience; it was the only one that gave any drops of blood; these flowed rapidly on its extraction, which was very painful. This needle was most oxydised. The patient afterwards felt only a sharp pain at the situation of the punctures, which soon went off, and the rheumatic pain quite disappeared.

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#### EFFECTS OF SODA WATER AND THE BEST MANNER OF PREPARING IT.

On this fashionable article, Dr. Paris makes the following remarks:—"The *modern* custom of drinking this inviting beverage during or immediately after dinner, has been a pregnant source of indigestion. By inflating the stomach at such a period, we inevitably counteract those *muscular* contractions of its coats which are essential to chymification. The quantity of soda thus introduced scarcely deserves notice; with the exception of the

carbonic acid gas, it may be regarded as water ; more mischievous only in consequence of the *exhilarating* quality, inducing us to take it at a period at which we should not require the more simple fluid."

Of all the waters we have obtained from fountains, in London and other places, under the names of "Soda Water," and "Double Soda Water," we have not been able to discover any soda. It is common water mechanically supersaturated with fixed air, which on being disengaged and rarified in the stomach, may, as Dr. Paris observes, so overdistend the organ as to interrupt digestion, or diminish the powers of the digestive organs. When acid prevails in the stomach, which is generally the case the day after too free an indulgence in wine, true soda water, taken two or three hours before dinner, or an hour before breakfast, not only neutralizes the acid, but the fixed air, which is disengaged, allays the irritation, and even by distending the organ, invigorates the muscular coat and nerves. As the quantity of soda, in the true soda water, is much too small to neutralize the acid, it is a good practice to add fifteen or twenty grains of the carbonate of soda, finely powdered, to each bottle, which may be done by pouring the contents of a bottle on it in a large glass.

Soda water, prepared in the best manner, contains a small quantity of carbonate of soda, which has a tendency to correct acidity in the stomach ; and also a proportion of carbonic acid gas, part of which soon escapes when the water is poured out, but part remains united to the water for some time after. This gas acts as a solvent of all the different earths ; and thence is of use in removing calculary concretions. As the carbonic acid is a powerful solvent of metallic substances, soda water should never be manufactured in copper vessels. The sodaic powders sold as a substitute for soda water, produce an effervescence when dissolved ; but the solution is very different indeed from soda water, both in its constituent parts, and in its properties. A quantity of *alkaline tartrate* may thus be taken into the system which tends to increase, rather than to remove obstructions, and in many stomachs must be highly injurious.

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#### OF THE STATE OF THE ORGANS OF WASTE IN INDIGESTION. BY DR. WILSON PHILIP.

It very frequently happens, in the second stage of indigestion, that when the disease begins to yield, the patient gets thinner, whether he has been losing flesh previously or not, which arises from the organs of waste being the first to regain their due action.



The observations I am here about to make have little reference to the first stage of the disease; it is then merely a local disease. The stomach alone, or along with the organs immediately connected with it, is debilitated. In the second stage the whole system, to its remotest parts, partakes of the disease. The pulse is everywhere tight, and the secreting surfaces debilitated.

It is not very uncommon, in the second stage of indigestion, for the organs of waste to be more debilitated than those of supply, and for the patient, from this cause, to get full and bloated. He acquires what, in common language, is called an unhealthy kind of fat. Part of what ought to be thrown off by the skin and other excretories is retained, and contributes not a little to the distressing feelings which the patient experiences. When this has happened to a considerable degree, the thinning is often rapid on the organs resuming their due functions; but even when this is not the case, the patient almost always becomes thinner in the first part of his recovery. As it advances, however, and the organs of supply begin to resume their proper functions, he begins to regain flesh, and by degrees generally returns to the standard natural to him in health, and thus generally becomes fuller than he has been during the greater part of his complaint. The loss of flesh without the loss of strength in the early part of the treatment, I have found almost a certain sign of ultimate recovery.

When there is also a tendency to increased depression of strength at this period, much attention on the part of the practitioner is necessary; for if this amount to any considerable degree, and is anything more than a transitory feeling, it will be found essentially to interfere with the progress of the cure. There is no point in the treatment of the second stage of indigestion which deserves more attention than that I am here considering. I shall therefore inquire into the causes of this tendency to an increase of debility in the commencement of the proper plan of treatment, and the means necessary to obviate it.

It evidently arises from several causes, but I believe chiefly from the following: All causes of irritation tend more or less to excite a feverish state. Hence the tight pulse, and frequent occurrence of some feverishness, particularly towards evening, in the second stage of indigestion, one of the most severe and obstinate causes of irritation. The tight pulse, indeed, which is always present in a greater or less degree at this period, constitutes itself a certain degree of feverishness, and when considerable, is accompanied with all its essential symptoms. The vessels, in consequence of the continued irritation of the most



sensible nerves of our frame, are excited to embrace the blood more strongly than in health; hence the tight pulse. Now this state, although a morbid one, tends for the present to support the strength, and we know, when in the extreme, will even give a preternatural degree of strength. I have repeatedly been consulted by dyspeptics, who said that the most unaccountable peculiarity of their case was, that they never felt tired, but felt as if they could walk for ever. This, so contrary to what is usual in indigestion, arises from peculiarity of habit; but strikingly illustrates a point of great importance in the nature of the disease. In such patients, the nerves are so braced by the tightened circulation, as not only to obviate the usual debilitating effects of the irritating cause, but even to give a preternatural vigour.

Could we suddenly relieve the dyspeptic from the causes of irritation to which he has been so long subject, by at once removing his disease, he would feel a depression of strength, till the nerves had accommodated themselves to the change. The tightened state of the circulation would be relaxed, and the effect of this would be increased by the secreting surfaces, which were bound up, beginning to separate more freely their various fluids, and also by the alimentary canal being less distended with flatulence and a collection of undigested food, which, however injurious, for the time gives tension, and therefore tone. On the same principle, if the water be too suddenly drawn off in dropsy of the abdomen, even by a greatly increased action of the kidneys, and still more by tapping, the patient feels an extreme sense of depression, and, in the latter case, often faints altogether. The pressure which braced both the circulating system and the nerves is taken off more suddenly than the system can accommodate itself to the change.

Thus it is, that even a change of diet from one of difficult to one of easy digestion, is sometimes attended with a considerable degree of depression, and that when no medicine is given, and more nourishment is actually received by the system, for what is not digested cannot nourish; so that even this change, the most essential for a dyspeptic, must be made with some degree of caution in protracted cases, and it should often be a work of considerable time to bring the patient to the proper diet.

If it is attempted too suddenly, he will tell you that his constitution cannot bear the diet you prescribe, and be discouraged from seconding your views, and, not unlikely, deprived of all chance of perfect recovery; for without a certain attention to rules of diet, the cure of indigestion, particularly when of long

standing, is impossible. What means will remove a disease, the cause of which are being continually applied?

Another cause of the depression which is apt to attend the first employment of the proper means in the second stage of indigestion is, that it is impossible to relieve cases of long standing without some of those measures which more directly soften the pulse and relax the secreting surfaces.

To produce a soft skin and a natural pulse in such cases, without which the patient can never be considered as cured, nor can he ever have the feelings of health, it is seldom sufficient to remove the causes of irritation. The bad habit is formed, and it must be corrected by such means as excite the secreting surfaces: in short, such means as take off the slight feverish state which prevails in the system, and more or less interferes with all its functions. Thus it is that alterative and saline medicines become necessary. But the reader will easily see why it is requisite, particularly at first, to employ them very cautiously; and this caution is doubly necessary, because the patient has generally been in the habit of using some of the stimulating means, which constitute the appropriate treatment of the first stage.

The difference in the manner in which different individuals bear the changes necessary to recovery, in advanced states of the disease, is very remarkable. In some the habit may be quickly altered with but little depression of strength; while in others it requires all the attention of the physician to prevent a considerable degree of it—such is the difference of constitution. The treatment should be regulated accordingly, and any great degree of depression prevented. It is to be observed, however, that the greater part of this depression is not, properly speaking, actual debility, as the intelligent reader will perceive from what has just been said.

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#### PAIN OF THE STOMACH, FLATULENCY, SWELLING, HEART-BURN, AND SOME OTHER DISORDERS OF THE STOMACH.

It is almost impossible to point out all the various causes of pain in the stomach, as arising either from its own affections, or from almost innumerable sympathies with every part of the body: affections of the liver, gall-ducts, pancreas, spleen, and intestines produce pain at the stomach, as well from deranging the digestion, as from the sympathy induced:—and it is also produced from a more remote connexion with the genital system, lungs, heart, skin, and every other part:—it often comes on with the nausea and vomiting in affections of the head and kidneys, and is symptomatic of febrile affection:—but the sympathetic pain



commonly soon deranges the digestion, and this diagnosis becomes less certain.

The pain from ulceration and from cancerous affection is aggravated when the stomach is called into action; in the former case for a considerable time after eating; in cancer and schirrus for the most part, but not always, there is lancinating pain peculiar to this kind of disease, both in these affections, and in ulceration, and in all organic diseases of the stomach, the pain is always aggravated precisely in the same spot on any stimulus being applied to the stomach. Morgagni has given a remarkable case of ulceration of the stomach occurring with ovarian disease, and there is good reason to suppose such complication to be not uncommon.

The sympathetic pain in the stomach from uterine affection is particularly striking;—many delicate women suffer from it when their periodical discharge is approaching, and in chlorosis. In pulmonary consumption, the sense of pain and sinking at the stomach is sometimes very remarkable. The sudden attacks on the stomach in gout and rheumatism, particularly those of gout, are not only objects of immediate and accurate inquiry and attention, but it is the duty of a physician to foresee, and, if possible, to prevent them, by preparing for his patient the means of obviating them, to be ready on the slightest symptom of attack:—the sensations about the stomach in gout frequently make people pray for a regular fit, which however scarcely gives temporary relief, and leaves them in an increased state of debility of the stomach; in dissections of patients who have died with gout in the stomach, an appearance of erysipelatous inflammation has been found on its internal surface: in rheumatism the attacks on the stomach last longer and are not so immediately dangerous, and are attended with more copious vomiting: when there are frequent paroxysms of pain in the stomach it is often requisite to enquire whether the patient be of rheumatic habit, as this kind of pain has sometimes been taken for organic affection, when it has proved to be true rheumatic disease, and has afterwards been relieved by, and has alternated with, rheumatism in the extremities.

The pain in flatulency is distinguished by its sudden attack, and as sudden cessation, when the aeriform fluid is expelled: it will sometimes depend on the most simple causes, and sometimes, as in gout and rheumatism, is the forerunner of formidable attacks of violent disease in the stomach:—sometimes vapor will be forced out of the stomach upwards, and the muscular fibres of which contracting above, the vapor is retained between the contracting part and the upper orifice of the



stomach, giving great pain :—if this should happen at the time of swallowing, when naturally the orifice relaxes to admit the food propelled by the passage, the resistance made by the air below to the descent of the food adds very much to the intensity of the pain : this symptom is not unfrequent in gouty people. Flatulency will sometimes prevail so as to distend the whole of the intestinal canal and to produce swelling, in which disease there is great uneasiness and dejection, but seldom much violence of pain :—the pain in flatulency is known to depend on the contraction of the muscular fibres on the contained vapor, and the freedom from pain in the swelling of the stomach, seems evidently owing to the want of power to contract in these muscular fibres, and this want of their contraction is for the most part essential to form this disorder.

The heartburn however is a term very generally used and commonly understood by those who have long been subject to it, and particularly by country farmers and their men, who frequently are plagued with it after copious draughts of ale or other fermented liquor to allay their thirst, while they are exposed to the powerful rays of the scorching sun in hay-time and harvest ; this appears to be the most simple form of the complaint, as depending on the spontaneous change of the ingesta in the stomach, which sustains a temporary derangement from long exposure of the body to heat and fatigue ; and in this stout and healthy race of men, it seldom requires any medical attention ; they commonly chew horse beans or some other unfermented farinaceous matter, and thus by taking solid matter, which is not disposed quickly to run into fermentation, the powers of the digesting viscera are renewed, and the heartburn ceases ;—a very similar instance of heartburn frequently appears in women who are suckling ; their appetite is increased by their having afforded a large quantity of nourishment to their infants ; it is highly necessary that this appetite should be indulged, and heartburn often ensues from mere repletion ; sometimes however, where the infant is strong and the nurse weak, this symptom occurs, attended with pungent and permanent pain. In pregnant women the heartburn and other symptoms of stomach affection depend on the irritability and sympathy peculiar to that state, as well as in the latter stages, on the pressure of the increased bulk of the uterus.

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PAWN-BROKERS, LAWYERS, AND DOCTORS.

It is the apparent unimportance of the interest required by pawn-brokers, which has seduced many into the habit of fre-

quenter those shops ; which are by no means useless to discreet people in the hour of need ; but people who are familiar with them, come to the use of their last shilling with perfect indifference ; knowing that by pledging some article of furniture, they can raise more money ; or should the furniture be already gone, they have ready a coat or a gown, which is well known to the pawn-broker ; or on urgent occasions, the property of others can be made free with for a few days.

Sabatier, in his “Treatise on Poverty,” describes the ill effects of the pawning system on the morals of the people, as observed by himself in some parts of the British Colonies, and seems to think it necessary that their numbers should be diminished in England.

A young couple setting out in the world, who are unfortunate enough to acquire a habit of getting credit at chandler’s shops, or using pawn-broker’s shops, may consider themselves as doomed to perpetual poverty. In a useful little work, entitled the “Poor Man’s Guide,” are the following remarks respecting pawning : If a person borrows half a guinea upon his suit of clothes, or any thing else (which is wanted once a week), he pays weekly a month’s interest, making in the year fifteen shillings and two pence, for the weekly use of ten shillings and sixpence.

Lawyers are still more than pawn-brokers to be shunned, for admitting that you are provided with an honest attorney, and you obtain a victory over your adversary, depend upon it you are still a loser, both in peace and pocket ; and people will shun you as a cunning and litigious character : but should you still more unfortunately be defeated in your struggle, and ruin be the result, you will have nothing left you but the common and useless practice of relating your case, or lamenting your injuries, to as many as will listen to you ; with perhaps some severe reproofs from your own conscience, for having suffered your resentment to get the better of your prudence.

In all agreements, let a clause be inserted, that differences and disputes between the parties, shall be made the subject of reference to three or five men of business, all of whom shall hear evidence, and decide finally, under the 9th and 10th William III. In May, 1794, a case in chancery was determined which gave the plaintiff *three pence*, and his attorney £13. 6s. 9d.

The choice of a doctor or physician, is also deserving of serious consideration ; the lawyer may be said to dispose of our property only, but the physician may take our money, our health, and even our life ; therefore let no one think his care ill bestowed in the preservation of health.



## HINTS FOR TAKING CARE OF AN INVALID.

So far back as 18—, being advised to remove from the city of ——— to the country, for the benefit of my health, which had got somewhat out of order by close study and confinement; instead of taking up my residence at a watering-place, I resolved to ramble through some parts of Durham. Letters of introduction were easily procured from some friends, to acquaintances living near to such places as I proposed to visit. My reader need not for a moment be apprehensive that he is about to be *bored* with a prosing journal, detailing accounts of scenes, rocks, and vallies—no such thing—the “*cuisine*” is somewhat more to my taste; and there is not a reasonable being in existence, who will not frankly admit that the ‘pleasantest view, seen in the whole of a country trip, is the view of the “*dejeuner*.”

My first visit was to a plain, straight-forward fox-hunter, to whom I had an introduction, and who received me with all the frankness usually attendant on such a character, assuring me, at the same time, how much he regretted that the state of my health would not allow me to go deep into the bottle, but that Mrs. ——— would take charge of me, and see my wants attended to. Here is some of the influence of “gossiping;” long before my arrival, every little circumstance connected with me was fully known, and thus it plays its part, influencing in some way even the minutest concerns of our lives.

At dinner, Mrs. ——— resolving to take charge of me, assigned me the seat next to her. Mr. ——— was in the act of asking, whether he should send me part of the dish before him, and I was just assenting, (it happening to be the very thing I should have preferred) but the hostess at once interposed, asking, with the greatest surprise, “could any such thing be recommended to an invalid? She must be allowed to know what was, and what was not fit for a delicate person, and had prepared under her own eye, ‘a made-dish,’ such as was fit for an invalid after a journey.” Spirits of Kitchiner! of Curtis! and all the other tribe of eating animals! look down with pity on a poor disciple, whose only fault was that of having been troubled with a bit of a short cough, or a little thickness of wind, and for this small offence was doomed, in the face of the very fare he could have feasted on, to eat that which he ever loathed, and the very sound of whose name, even now, makes him shudder—“a made dish after a journey!”

To prescribe the quality of the thing to be eaten, seemed a mere preliminary act of guardianship on the part of my hostess;



to order the quantity followed naturally enough, as a matter of course; but, though with patient submission to inexorable fate, I ate almost to repletion of viands thus presented, my only recompence was—"Oh, you really are doing nothing, you have scarcely eaten a morsel." Repeated assurances that I already had abundance were of no avail, my plate was still loaded with unsparing hand. To diversify the scene, or rather to produce a diversion, I tried to get some fluid to sip, by way of interlude; and while in the act of calling to the servant, my hostess, ever watchful of my comforts, seemed disposed to crown her attentions, by adding to the pile already before me, but her attention was roused to another subject. The sound of the word, "glass of ale," as I called to the servant, suspended every other purpose. "Surely, Sir, your physician does not allow you ale?—it is quite impossible, such beverage is never allowed to an invalid. I see I must take charge of you; you'll allow me to shew you how to mix your wine and water, it is the only drink fit for delicate persons."

Literally horror-struck at the very name of that vilest of all vile mixtures, wine and water, I still felt that resistance or protestation were alike unavailing, and so was obliged to make a virtue of sad necessity, and submit with as much composure as I could assume. Wine, Sir, as every body knows, was once, even in this great wine-bibbing country, used only medicinally, but now it has become so much an article of every day's use, that all trace of its original character is lost, I mean that character of nauseousness that appertains to every part and portion of the *res-medica*; however it was once my lot to drink port, I say medicinal port, with every circumstance of feel and gesture that attends the act of gulping down some compost of the pharmacopolists.

Possibly you may have witnessed the sensation that is caused by the arrival of an unexpected guest; and, amongst other causes of bustle, in a country house that does not rejoice in a well-stored wine-cellar, the haste with which a courier is dispatched to the next town for the "wine for dinner."—Just fancy, for a moment, such a skipper, returning home with this article of luxury committed to his charge: see the zeal with which he grasps the neck of a brace of bottles, one in each fist, and then think of the effect that a trot of two or three miles, on a hot day, will have on its contents;—then think what must be the feelings of a man, who happened to get a glimpse of the probation to which that luckless wine had been subjected, and at dinner, on asking for a glass of ale, is peremptorily told he must have wine and water, which is his utter aversion at the best of times; and

then, when an awkward clown clumsily inserts a bad cork-screw, sees, to his utter dismay, the cork come away piecemeal, and the turbid "black strap" issue, gurgling forth, loaded with fragments of cork, or sediment, or both, now rendered even more manifest by the watering to which it is subjected;—when, I say, you have all these preliminaries in your mind's eye, just figure a devoted being, endeavouring to still the qualm that kicks at his stomach, while trying to compose the wrinkle that would twirl up his nose, as he prepares to gulp down the nauseous draught, to which his guardian angel had doomed him.—Picture to yourself all this, and have you not, at one view, the very climax of human misery?

The dinner-scene, to my great relief, passed away, and the signal for the ladies to retire gave some prospect of being freed from farther outrage, for so it may truly be called; but my hostess, lest by any possibility I might forget her attention, perceiving my eye to stray towards a flask of clear mountain-dew that was laid on the table, strictly, as her parting injunction, forbade any other liquor than *negus*.

The host was not so excessively submissive as to have every command carried into execution, and he allowed me to fortify myself with some of the "patience" which he found probably, to be indispensable to himself, whenever he wished to assume even the appearance of being a free agent. Thus strengthened I took courage, and resolved, that, come what may, at the tea table I should drink no medicinals. There, happily, no subject of difference occurred; all went quietly on, and as early hours are necessary for an invalid, I was conducted to my sleeping apartment, shortly after ten o'clock. Here, at my very entrance, I felt a *glowing* proof of the attention paid to my comforts as an invalid, particularly an asthmatic one; a huge pile of wood blazed before me, though on referring to my diary I found the time of the year was June 3d. The curtains were drawn closely round the bed, the window-shutters carefully barred, blinds, &c. &c. adjusted, so as to defy Boreas himself to slide in one puff to my assistance, even if at my last gasp for a mouthful of fresh air. But, Sir, I was an invalid, and somewhat asthmatic: therefore, in every particular, as you see, treated as such!! To undo all the other overt-acts of attention was easy enough, but as for the great blazing log that was literally hissing in the fire-place; to eject that was quite out of the question. So, submission being the order of the day, nothing remained for me but to make up my mind quietly to bear "those ills we have," though the catalogue seems pretty full, as even the section of our first day's history testifies—a blazing fire, close curtains, and a pile of down for an asthmatic!!

## ON THE CAUSE AND CURE OF GOUT. BY DR. CADOGAN.

The gout is so common a disease, that there is scarcely a man in the world, whether he has had it or not, but thinks he knows perfectly what it is. So does a cook-maid think she knows what fire is as well as Sir Isaac Newton. It may, therefore, seem needless at present to trouble ourselves about a definition, to say what it is: but I will venture to say what I am persuaded it is not, though contrary to the general opinion. It is not hereditary, it is not periodical, and it is not incurable.

If it were hereditary, it would be necessarily transmitted from father to son, and no man whose father had it could possibly be free from it: but this is not the case, there are many instances to the contrary: it is therefore not necessarily so; but the father's having it inclines or disposes the son to it. This is the *causa proegumena* or *prædisponent* of the learned, which of itself never produced any effect at all; there must be joined the *causa procatarctica*, or active efficient cause; that is, our own intemperance or mistaken habit of life, to produce it; and accordingly as this operates more or less, so will the gout be. Our parents undoubtedly give us constitutions similar to their own, and if we live in the same manner they did, we shall very probably be troubled with the same diseases: but this by no means proves them to be hereditary: it is what we do ourselves that will either bring them on, or keep us free.

If it were hereditary, it would appear in infancy and in women, which in general it does not. I may be told of some women who have had it. I believe never very young, nor till they had contributed to it themselves; for women, as well as men, may abuse a good constitution. I have heard likewise of a boy or two out of a million that had it, or something like it; but these boys had been suffered to sip wine very early, and been fed and indulged every way most unwholesomely.

Those who insist that the gout is hereditary, because they think they see it so sometimes, must argue very inconclusively; for if we compute the number of children who have it not, and women who have it not, together with all those active and temperate men who are free from it, though born of gouty parents; the proportion will be found at least a hundred to one against that opinion. And surely I have a greater right from all these instances to say that it is not hereditary, than they have from a few to contend that it is. What is all this, but to pronounce a disease hereditary, and prove it by saying that it is sometimes so, but oftener not so? Can there be a greater absurdity?

Some men observing, in the circle of their acquaintance, the



children of gouty parents afflicted with the gout, and often very early in life, though they are what they call temperate, conclude, not unnaturally, that the disease must be parental, and unavoidably transfused into their constitutions. If this were the case, it must be for ever incurable, and the sins of the father visited upon the children not only of three or four but endless generations to come. Diseases really hereditary, I fear, are never cured by any art or method whatever, as is but too true in the cases of scrofula and madness, and diseases of taint or infection, and malformation. But here lies the error, their idea of temperance is by no means just: for some men require a greater degree, a stricter mode of it than others, to be kept in good health. I make no doubt but if the lives these gouty descendants lead were closely inquired into by real physicians, they would be found to commit many errors, and to sin often against nature's law of temperance, or to want that constant peace of mind or regular activity of body which are as necessary as temperance, not only to keep off the gout, but to preserve health in general; and thus it will appear at last that they have contributed to it more than their parents.

If the gout be a disease of indigestion, and therefore of our own acquiring, we must reason very ill, or rather not reason at all, when we say it is hereditary; for surely no man will say that indigestion is hereditary, any more than intemperance. There are whole nations of active people knowing no luxury, who for ages have been free from it, but have it now since the Europeans have brought them wine and spirits.

If the gout be thought hereditary because it is incurable by medicine, the same may be said of every other chronic disease, none of which ever are cured by it; I mean so as not to return again. When was there a man, who, having had one fit of rheumatism, stone, colic, &c. however happily relieved by art for a time, had it not again and again, or something worse in the place of it; till he became a confirmed invalid, and died long before his time; unless some very remarkable alteration took place in the course of his life to confirm his health? So it is in the gout: a man gets a fit of it, and by abstinence, patience, time, and nature, the crude acrimony producing it is subdued and exhausted, and he is relieved for a time (he might be so much sooner, and very safely too, by the assistance of art judiciously employed): he recovers, however, and in a few months is taken ill again. Why? Not from any thing inherent in his constitution, but because he returned to his former habit of life that produced it at first, and will for ever produce it while the strength of his body lasts.

*True Cause of Gout.*

The truth is, we breed it at first, we renew it again and again, and bring it on ourselves by our own mistakes or faults, which we would fain excuse by throwing them back upon our parents, that our complaints may be more justly founded. And as bankrupts, undone by idleness and extravagance, for ever plead losses and misfortunes; so do we inheritance, to exculpate ourselves.

It is natural enough for those who believe the gout hereditary to think it also periodical, as if something innate and inherent in our constitutions produced it at certain times: but this is a great mistake; for if it were periodical, it must be regularly so. The only periodical disease I know is the intermittent fever, which, till it be disturbed by the bark or any other febrifuge, is as regular as a good clock. The returns of the gout are always very uncertain, according to the quantity or quality of accumulated indigestion within, and the strength of our bodies.

*Gout not Incurable.*

I come now to shew that the gout is not incurable. If by the cure of it be meant the administering a pill or a powder, or medicine of any kind to do it, I fear it is and ever will be incurable. It has been long and often attempted in vain, from the origin of physic to this day, from the first quack to the present. Indeed there is a most glaring absurdity at first sight, that must stop any man of common sense, who has the least insight into nature, or knowledge of the human frame: for if the gout be the necessary effect of intemperance, as I hope to shew very evidently that it is, a medicine to cure it must be something that will enable a man to bear the daily intemperance of his future life unhurt by the gout or any other disease; that is, something given now that will take away the effect of a future cause. As well might a medicine be given now to prevent a man's breaking his leg or his neck seven years hence. One would think the utmost that any rational man could expect from medicine was, that it should have power to relieve and remove present disorders, leaving the body quite free, without pretending to insure it from future injuries. Here lies the error; men think the gout to be something latent in the body now, which, once well eradicated, would never return; not suspecting it to be no more than each day's indigestion accumulated to a certain pitch, that, as long as the vigour of life lasts, always brings on every fit, which once well over, the man has no more gout, nor seeds of gout in him, than he who never had

it ; and, if he did not breed it again, most certainly would never have it again. A proof of this is, that the gout has been often cured by a milk diet, which, as long as it lasted, has generally kept the patient free. But this method of cure I cannot approve, because it relaxes and enervates the man, and does not sufficiently support the health and vigour of his body.

Though I think the gout incurable by medicine, it is so far from being incurable in its nature, that I am firmly persuaded it may be more easily and more perfectly cured than almost any other chronic disease ; and this is another strong argument that proves it not hereditary. My reason is, that it is confessedly a disease of the strongest and best constitution, relieving itself by throwing off harsh and bad humours from the vitals, and out of the blood upon the extremities, where they do least harm to the powers and principles of life and health ; and as these humours can be nothing more than the daily accumulations of indigestion, if a man can live without breeding constantly this indigested acrimony, he may most undoubtedly live free, not only from the gout, but every other chronic disease also. And that he may live so, not in a perpetual state of mortification and self-denial, but with great ease and comfort to himself, in the truest, most philosophic luxury, I shall endeavour to prove, I hope to the satisfaction of all thinking, reasonable men.

Having shewn that the gout is not hereditary, not inherent in our constitutions, but produced by the daily accumulations of undigested, unsubdued acrimony and superfluity, which, when they abound to a certain degree, must end either in a fit of the gout, or some other disease, according to the constitution, as long as any vigour is left in the body ; for nature will for ever free or endeavour to free itself, and purge the blood of its impurities by gout, by fever, by pain of one kind or other, that takes off the appetite, and for a time gives respite, and prevents the pouring in of more and more enemies to disturb its operation, and make it ineffectual. Thus young people, after a fit of gout is happily and well gone off, are as free from it as if they had never had it ; and if they would take warning and be careful not to breed it again, most certainly would for ever remain free. How absurd, therefore, how ridiculously ignorant must be every attempt to cure the gout in *futuro* by medicine, before it be yet formed, before it has any existence ! Can such a medicine give supernatural strength, and enable an old man living in indolence to digest and consume, or discharge the superfluities of his daily intemperance ? that is, to give him more vigorous powers than nature gave him at one-and-twenty, or when the gout came first upon him. The duke of Portland's powder promised



to do something like this, and most certainly kept off the gout for two or three years. But what was it? and what did it really do? It was a strong spicy bitter taken in substance, in a large quantity, for a long time; its effect was to keep up a constant fever as long as it was taken; this kept the gouty matter always afloat, and prevented its fixing any where. But there was no living long with a constant fever; accordingly many of those who took it died very soon. I myself observed between fifty and sixty of its advocates, some my patients, some my acquaintance or neighbours, who were apparently cured by it for a little while; but in less than six years time, *omnes ad internecionem cæsi*, they all died to a man.

Many similar attempts have been made with other medicines to cure not only the gout, but most other chronic diseases, and with the same fatal effects. Antimony and mercury elaborated into poisons by chemistry have been administered, particularly the solution of sublimate, has torn many a stomach to rags, so that it could never bear common food afterwards. The deadly night-shade, and hemlock, and many such dreadful poisons, have been given as alteratives to restore health. The intention here seems to be kill or cure; to raise a violent agitation or fever in the body, in hopes it may prove strong enough to throw off the disease and medicine together. The effect has ever been, notwithstanding a little apparent and deceitful relief may have been perceived from the first efforts, that it has sunk under both loads, and, exhausted by repeated straining, much sooner than by the disease alone.

#### Method of Cure.

Can any one in his senses suppose that diseases a man has been his whole life contracting, and to which he is adding every day by perseverance in unwholesome diet, and bad habits, are to be thus removed by a *coup de main, ou de baguette*? or that they will not return, be they cured or conjured away ever so often, whilst he continues the same mode of life that brought them on at first?

What then is to be done? how and in what manner are chronic diseases and cachexies to be cured, and health restored and established? I have already shewn that the causes of these evils are indolence, intemperance, and vexation; and if there be any truth or weight in what I have said, the remedies are obvious: activity, temperance, and peace of mind. It will be said, the remedies are obvious, but impracticable. Would you bid the feeble cripple, who cannot stand, take up his bed and walk? the man who has lost all appetite, abstain? and the

sleepless wretch, racked with pain, enjoy peace of mind? No, certainly; I am not so absurd. These must be assisted by medicine; and if they have not exhausted all its power already, a little respite, a favourable interval may be obtained, that, with other artificial aids co-operating, may be greatly improved to their advantage; and if rightly employed they may get on from strength to strength, till they recover into perfect health. But it is not my design at present to expatiate upon that particular kind of medical relief which every chronic case may require; it would lead me into too wide a field, and too far from my present purpose; which is to shew that the gout, in most of its stages and degrees, may be cured, a present paroxysm or fit relieved, its return for ever safely prevented, and the patient established in perfect health.

Let us suppose the case of a man from forty to fifty years of age, who has had at least twenty fits of gout; by which most of his joints have been so clogged and obstructed, as to make walking or any kind of motion very uneasy to him; let him have had it sometimes in his stomach, a little in his head, and often all over him, so as to make him universally sick and low-spirited, especially before a regular fit has come to relieve him. This I apprehend to be as bad a case as we need propose, and that it will not be expected that every old cripple whose joints are burnt to chalk, and his bones grown together and united by ankylosis, who must be carried from his bed to his table and back again, should be proposed as an object of medication and cure; and yet even he might perhaps receive some relief and palliation of pain, if he has any great degree of it, which is not very common in this case. Let us therefore suppose the first example.

If the point be to assuage the violent raging of a present paroxysm, this may be safely done by giving some soft and slowly-operating laxative, neither hot nor cold, but warm, either in small doses repeated so as to move the patient once or twice in twenty-four hours, or by a larger dose oftener in less time, according to the strength and exigency. This may be followed by a few lenient absorbent correctors of acrimony or even gentle anodynes: proper cataplasms may also be safely applied to the raging part, which often assuage pain surprizingly; with as much mild and spontaneously-dissolving nourishment as may keep the spirits from sinking too low: but I would wish them to sink a little, and exhort the patient to bear that lowness with patience and resignation, till nature, assisted by soft and succulent food, can have time to relieve him. This easy method of treating a fit of the gout would answer in any age; and if the



patient was young and vigorous, and the pain violent, there could be no danger in taking away a little blood. Thus in two or three days time I have often seen a severe fit mitigated and made tolerable : and this is a better way of treating it with regard to future consequences, than bearing it with patience, and suffering it to take its course ; for the sooner the joints are relieved from distension and pain, the less danger there is of obstructions fixing in them, or their being calcined and utterly destroyed. But instead of this, the general practice is quite the reverse. “ Oh ! keep up your spirits, they cry ; keep it out of your stomach at all events ;” where, whenever it rages in a distant part, it is not at all inclined to come. As you cannot eat, you must drink the more freely. So they take cordials, strong wines, and rich spoon-meats. By urging in this manner, a great fever is raised, the pain enraged and prolonged ; and a fit, that would have ended spontaneously in less than a week, is protracted to a month or six weeks, and, when it goes off at last, leaves such obstruction and weakness in the parts, as cripple the man ever after. All this I hope will be fairly and candidly understood ; for there is doubtless a great variety of gouty cases, but no case that will not admit of medical assistance judiciously administered.

\* *To Prevent the Return of Gout.*

But the most capital point of all, and what is most desired by all, is to prevent its return, or changing into any other disease, and to establish health. Most men would be very well pleased and happy could this be done by any medical trick or nostrum, with full liberty of living as they list, and indulging every appetite and passion without controul. Some poor silly creatures, ignorant of all philosophy and the nature of causes and effects, have been led into experiments of this kind by a few artful rogues, very much to the prejudice of their future health, and danger of their lives also ; expecting from medicine, what it never did or can perform alone, the cure of chronic diseases.

I think it needless here to take any pains to shew the inefficacy of all the common modes of practice, vomiting, purging, bleeding, blistering, issues, &c. They have been found ineffectual not only in the gout, but all other chronic cases. All sensible practitioners must know their effects to be but temporary, and that they are meant and used only as means of present relief. Let us see therefore by what practicable plan or regimen the person here described, when a fit of the gout is happily ended, may for ever prevent its return, and so confirm his gene-



ral health, that it shall not again be overset by every slight cold or trifling accident.

I have already shewn that a certain degree of activity or bodily motion is necessary at intervals every day, to raise the circulation to that pitch, that will keep the fine vessels open and the old blood pure, and also make new from the fresh juices. If the patient cannot be brought to this, he has no chance of recovering to perfect health. If therefore he can neither walk nor ride at all, he must by degrees be brought to do both by the assistance of others, which may be given him in the following manner: let a handy active servant or two be employed to rub him all over, as he lies in bed, with flannels, or flannel gloves, fumigated with gums and spices, which will contribute greatly to brace and strengthen his nerves and fibres, and move his blood without any fatigue to himself. This may take up from five to ten minutes at first, but must be repeated five or six times a day, supposing him totally unable to help himself. But if he can walk a hundred yards only, it will forward him greatly to walk those hundred yards every two hours, and if he can bear a carriage, let him go out in it every day, till he begins to be tired. The first day or two all this may disturb and fatigue him a little; but if he has patience to persevere to the fourth, I dare promise him some amendment, and increase of strength; which he must employ as young merchants do a little money, to get more. Thus he must go on rubbing, walking, and riding a little more and more every day, stopping always upon the first sensation of weariness to rest a little, till he be able to walk two or three miles at a stretch, or ride ten without any weariness at all. This is recommended with an intention to dislodge and throw off all remains of crude gouty conerctions that may have obstructed his joints, or lain concealed in any of the *lacunæ* or recesses of his body; to free the circulation in *minimis*, and all its secretions, perspirations, and discharges whatever: and though this intention can never be but very defectively answered by medicines, it may certainly be assisted and greatly promoted by a few well-chosen mild antimonial, absorbent and saponaceous deobstruents and sweeteners, that, like putting shot or gravel into a bottle, with a good deal of agitation will greatly help to make it clean, but without agitation will do nothing.

While we are thus endeavouring to resolve all old obstructions, to open the fine vessels, and strain and purify the blood, and by degrees to enable the man to use a certain degree of exercise or labour every day; great care must be taken in the choice of his diet, that no new acrimony be added to the old, to thwart and frustrate this salutary operation. His food must

be soft, mild, and spontaneously digesting, and in moderate quantity, so as to give the least possible labour to the stomach and bowels ; that it may neither turn sour, nor bitter, nor rancid, nor any way degenerate from those qualities necessary to make good blood. Such things are, at first, new-laid eggs boiled so as not to harden the white creamy part of them, tripe, calves feet, chicken, partridge, rabbits, most sorts of white mild fish, such as whiting, skate, cod, turbot, &c. and all sorts of shell-fish, particularly oysters raw. Very soon he will be strong enough to eat beef, veal, mutton, lamb, pork, venison, &c. but these must all be kept till they are tender, and eaten with their own gravies without any compounded sauces or pickles whatever : instead of which, boiled or stewed vegetables, and sallads of lettuce and endive, may be used : and the luxury that is not unwholesome may be allowed, light puddings, custards, creams, blanc-mange, &c. and ripe fruits of all kinds and seasons. But because wine undoubtedly produces nine in ten of all the gout in the world, wine must be avoided, or taken very sparingly, and but seldom. How is this to be done ? Can a man used to it every day, who thinks he cannot live without, and that his existence depends upon it, leave it off safely ? If he thinks he must die of the experiment, doing it all at once, he may do it by degrees, and drink but half the quantity of yesterday till he has brought it to nothing. But the danger of attempting it in this manner is, that it will never be done ; and, like a procrastinating sinner, he will for ever put off his penitential resolution till to-morrow. If he did it all at once, I would be hanged if he died of the attempt ; he would be uneasy for three or four days, that's all. He may change his liquor, and drink a little good porter, or soft ale, and by degrees come to small beer, the wholesomest and best of all liquors, except good soft water. I do not mean that this rigorous abstinence from wine is to last for life, but only during the conflict with the disease. As soon as he has recovered health and strength to use exercise enough to subdue it, he may safely indulge once a week, or perhaps twice, with a pint of wine for the sake of good humour and good company, if they cannot be enjoyed without it ; for I would not be such a churl as to forbid, or even damp, one of the greatest joys of human life.

The severity of these efforts, and this abstemious care need be continued no longer than the disease or the effects of it remain. When by perseverance in the practice of them, together with the medical aids here recommended, the patient shall have recovered his strength and locomotive powers, he may preserve and perpetuate them, and make good his title to longevity.



OF THE COMPARATIVE HEALTHINESS OF A TOWN AND COUNTRY RESIDENCE.

Large towns have been emphatically called the *graves of the human species*, and certainly they are not favourable to health and longevity. If a number of individuals, crowded into a room, render its air unwholesome, an immense population, assembled in a great city, must, to a certain extent, have the same effect, though the circulation of the air is not so completely impeded within the circuit of a town, as in a house or a chamber. The constitution of the generality of citizens may be denominated weak, irritable, and easily susceptible of diseased action; and when men are crowded together, to a certain degree, they engender diseases, not only fatal to themselves, but which are contagious, and therefore destructive to others. In towns also, great quantities of putrid matter are collected in the kennels and common sewers, in church-yards, in the shambles, in market places, and about the stables of the more opulent citizens. In large towns, and in their immediate neighbourhood, many unwholesome manufactories are carried on; the atmosphere is darkened with clouds of smoke, by which the light and genial warmth of the sun is frequently intercepted; and when, to these circumstances, are joined, luxurious manners, unwholesome food, improper clothing, irregular hours, want of exercise, and above all, the means which great towns furnish of gratifying to an extreme all the sensual appetites, is it to be wondered at, that the inhabitants of towns, and still more of great capitals, should be unhealthy and short lived, and that instead of keeping up their own numbers, it should be necessary for them constantly to have recruits from the country to keep up their population?

It may be said, that many old people are found in considerable towns, and even in large capitals, like London and Paris. But the proportion is very small; and it is more than probable, that the foundation of their health and strength was laid in the country; and a good basis being once established, their constitutions were better enabled to resist the dangers of an unhealthy residence.

Villages, if properly situated, and kept under due regulation, are certainly favourable to health; but, for that purpose, they ought to be placed in a dry soil, on a shelving bank, near a running stream, the houses not too contiguous to each other, and in single rows, rather than in regular streets. Where villages are well situated, such is their superiority in regard to health, that, in all cases of accounts, the courts of law in England have



determined, that in a given number of persons at two places, namely, a country village or the metropolis, the duration of human life in the village ought to be computed at fifteen, compared to ten and a half in London.

By some it is affirmed, that man is by nature *a field animal*, and seems destined to rise with the sun, and to spend a large portion of his time in the open air; to inure his body to robust exercises, and the inclemency of the seasons, and to make a plain and homely repast only when hunger dictates. But here the moralist goes too far. A country residence is certainly well calculated for mere existence; but what would become of all the pleasures of social life, and all the improvements of science and of art, if people were perpetually to live in a scattered or insulated state, and solely in the country? Though health ought to be preserved, it is not the only proper object of our attention.

The absurdity of such an idea has been well described by the celebrated Addison, who gives an account of a young gentleman of a considerable estate, who had been educated by a tender mother with so much care for his health, that she made him good for nothing. Reading, she quickly found, was bad for his eyes, and writing made his head ache. He had got by these means a great stock of health, and nothing else; and, if it were a man's business *only to live*, there could not be a more accomplished young man in the whole country. Such men may really be called *field animals*, and indeed are of no manner of use, but to keep up their families, and transmit their lands and houses in a line to posterity.

To retire entirely, or at least to spend the greater part of the year in the country, towards the conclusion of a busy and well spent life, may however prove a wise and happy conclusion to these sublunary scenes. A country life, as Bacon justly remarks, is well fitted for long life; it is much abroad, and in the open air; it is not slothful, but ever in employment; it feedeth upon fresh cares, and unbought; it is without cares and envy.

The increase of population, also, where a country life generally prevails, is a strong argument in its favour. In some provinces of North America, the population is doubled in fifteen years, and over all that continent in twenty-five years. How different, in this respect, from towns, which requires recruits from the country.

In old age, quiet is desirable; and agriculture is an occupation which is sufficiently interesting to command the attention, without agitating too much the passions of the human mind. Though, in the severity of winter, old age may feel both shelter and society in a town residence, yet during the favourable sea-

sons of the year, the country is preferable. Sir Hans Sloane, Fontenelle, and a few others, may be mentioned, whose lives were principally spent in cities, and yet extended to a great length. But in general the proportion is about two to one in favour of the country.

The proportion of people who die annually in great towns, in moderate towns, and in the country, has been calculated as follows:—

In great towns, from  $\frac{1}{10}$  or  $\frac{1}{20}$  to  $\frac{1}{3}$  or  $\frac{1}{4}$ .

In moderate towns, from  $\frac{1}{5}$  to  $\frac{1}{8}$ .

In the country, from  $\frac{1}{5}$  or  $\frac{1}{10}$  to  $\frac{1}{50}$  or  $\frac{1}{60}$ .

This, however, must be understood with some exceptions, as moderate towns may be so ill situated, as to increase the proportion of deaths, and the proportion in great towns may sometimes be decreased by a sudden increase of healthy inhabitants in the prime of life.

On the whole, we may conclude, that a place of residence calculated for health and longevity should be, if possible, in a temperate climate;—in a situation moderately elevated;—if in Great Britain, with a southern exposure,—in the neighbourhood of the sea, or near a rapid stream or river,—having a command of water fit for drinking,—sheltered by trees, but not environed with extensive woods or forests;—with a dry soil;—in the vicinity of abundant fuel;—with a somewhat moist, rather than a very dry atmosphere; in an island, rather than on an extensive continent;—and either in a well-planned village, or totally in the country.

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#### ON THE PREVENTION OF STONE AND GRAVEL.

Persons who have the misfortune of having their water impeded, whether by stricture or obstruction, are subject to all the calamities attending a too long retention of urine. The two lamina of muscular fibres surrounding the bladder transversely and longitudinally, constantly exerting themselves to expel the urine, produce a morbid thickness in the substance of the bladder. Notwithstanding this increase, it becomes less firm, and sometimes gives way so much, as to form a sacculus or pouch. Here the urine enters, and not passing off upon any contraction, deposits by stagnating, a calcareous matter, which gradually forms into a considerable stone. If, upon the least appearance of any impediment to the flow of the water, a proper bougie had been used, the canal would have been sufficiently dilated, and this train of distressing symptoms would have been prevented.

Independently of the good effects of bougies, in curing stric-



tures, removing obstructions, gleet, seminal weakness, and incontinency of urine, they are likewise useful in a superior degree to discover the nature of complaints that could not be otherwise ascertained.

The dangerous consequences attending suppressions of urine, ought to induce every person, labouring under the least obstruction, or the slightest stricture, to have immediate recourse to remedies, easy in their application, and certain in their effects. From a thousand accidental causes, apparently trivial, an obstruction may suddenly produce an alarming suppression; but, on the contrary, when a bougie can be worn, no dangerous consequences can possibly ensue.

### *The Action of Caustic on Urinary Obstructions.*

Caustic has often been applied to remove obstructions in the urinary passage, where the diameter of the urethra is so diminished as to prevent the introduction of a bougie, and obstruct the free passage of the urine. Mr. J. Hunter, whose life and writings form an important era in surgery, revived the old practice, by the introduction of lunar caustic. He recommended it however in a very limited degree; applied it with great caution, and in those cases only which were, in his own opinion, beyond the reach of common means. What he thus cautiously advised as an experiment in difficult cases, has, since his time, been carried to an extent he could not have anticipated; almost every case is indiscriminately attacked with caustic, as if the question *how* and *when* it should be used, were no longer an object of enquiry. In opposition, however, to such high authority, I am obliged to object to this mode of treatment, because I am convinced, from long observation, that this method ought not to be adopted; for, besides being very *precarious*, and usually *unsuccessful*, it is generally attended with dangerous consequences.

That it is *precarious* in its effects, will at once appear probable from reasoning, without the support of experience, since it is applied in cases where we cannot determine either the precise situation, or the extent of the stricture. When the stricture extends some way through the passage, I will venture to assert that it cannot accomplish a cure; to fail in the attempt is not all that we have to apprehend from the use of caustic; a more dangerous consequence in general ensues. The surgeon repeats the operation twice, thrice, or perhaps oftener, in hopes of succeeding by perseverance; in doing this, he applies it very frequently, not to the stricture in the direction of the passage, but to the sides, by which he excites an irritation, occasions inflammation and suppuration, which terminates in a fistulous opening



through the sides of the urethra. I remember an instance of a sailor, who, having a stricture in the urethra, had neglected the application of proper remedies, until the disease had become considerable. The urine was discharged in a very small stream, and with a great degree of pain; in this situation, recourse was had to the caustic; it was renewed seven times successively without effect, and from having produced inflammation in the part to which it was applied, it completely obstructed the flow of urine: there was then no alternative but that of tapping the bladder, or opening the passage of the urethra. The surgeon determined upon the latter; he introduced a hollow bougie down to the stricture, and made an incision upon it; he then endeavoured to divide the stricture, and thus convey the hollow bougie into the bladder; but the difficulty was much greater than was expected, the canal was obstructed for above half an inch, and there being nothing to direct the knife to the part of the urethra below the stricture, it was a long time before it could be found in the collapsed state of the parts, and the patient supported the pain for at least half an hour before the operation was completed, and when it was, the danger was not removed, there being great reason to dread that the urine, instead of passing regularly through the tube, would insinuate itself into the cellular substance of the scrotum, and occasion much inflammation, and a sloughing of that part; fortunately however, the patient escaped those effects, and within a fortnight from the time of the operation the wound was healed.

This case is sufficient to prove the inefficacy, and even the danger of caustic in cases of stricture. If in this instance, instead of having recourse to the caustic, a bougie of proper size and consistence had been used, with judgment and caution, it would in all probability have answered the purpose, and prevented the necessity of those desperate means, which had nearly occasioned the death of the patient. Another circumstance which we should also observe, with respect to these complaints, is the direction of the canal being altered or thrown towards one side, for in this case the use of caustic is still more hazardous. In the introduction of a bougie, we have occasion to bear this peculiarly in mind, and by bending the point of it we are often enabled to pass it without difficulty, but with caustic we are not able to do this. From what I have already observed, I think it will be sufficiently obvious, that this treatment is very dangerous. Mr. Hunter's method of applying it was through a silver canula, by which means the sides of the urethra were not likely to be injured in passing it down; he made use of the lunar caustic, as being more limited in its action.

Mr. Home has varied the mode by inserting a piece of the caustic in the point of a common bougie; but this, as it exposes the urethra to its action more than the other, seems to be more objectionable.

It has been said, that the hæmorrhage, which generally ensues after the application of caustic, is more alarming than dangerous. For the extent however to which it continues, I need only refer to the common experience of every surgeon who has used caustic. In Mr. Home's Treatise we find, "the parts bled freely—it continued for hours—the quantity lost we suppose to be several pounds," are expressions to be met with often; and in one case it is observed, "the bleeding and pain continued several days." The indifference with which these circumstances are viewed, is considered by Dr. Andrews as the result of "cool and steady conduct:" he admits however, "that if the hæmorrhage was, *in a great proportion of cases*, to terminate fatally, it would then be a strong objection to the practice; but this (in a great proportion of cases) we do not find to be true." But admitting, as may be fairly inferred even from this account, that some instances have terminated fatally, surely it is at least strong objection, and enough to justify any surgeon, in complaining of the levity with which these objections are treated, as well as his expressing astonishment at the coolness with which a certain surgeon viewed a chamber-pot full of blood, and the ease with which he called for another. Mr. Carlisle speaks of it as one of the most dangerous consequences following the application of caustic, and mentions a case in which the hæmorrhage continued seven days: in the two first the patient lost four pounds of blood, and nearly as much afterwards. The frequency of this occurrence is owing to the structure of the corpus spongiosum, and the thinness of the partition interposed between that and the mucous surface of the urethra, and not to want of skill in performing the operation. It is, on that account, impossible for any surgeon whatever to say, that such effects will not be produced by the caustic, even when used with the greatest care.

Any medical delusion, that has the air of novelty, however irrational in principle, or destructive in its consequences, is sure of obtaining temporary admiration, not only from a certain class in the profession, but also from the credulous and uninformed part of mankind. The former, as they should know better, are inexcusable, and deserve severe censure; the latter, as their errors arise from their ignorance of the art, merit pity and commiseration.

Amongst many projectors of the present day, none have produced more mischief than the patronisers and practisers of *caus-*

*ticated bougies.* The revival of this barbarous practice has been affirmed, without hesitation, to be a new invention of the late Mr. John Hunter. This assertion is the reverse of truth, as will clearly be proved by extracts from the writings of Ambrose Paré, and different authors, for above two centuries. The severe animadversions that will appear on the subject from the most practical surgeons, and the most unequivocal proofs of the devastation and destruction of caustic bougies applied to the urethra, it is presumed, will deter all, but the proud, conceited, and obstinate, from ever repeating those acts of cruelty.—“*Hominum est errare ; sed in errore perseverare diabolicum.*”—They have brought an indelible disgrace on that art, which should be always exercised, as much as possible, in the warmest acts of benevolence and humanity, instead of rash and wanton barbarity.

#### THE EFFECT OF AMUSEMENTS ON HEALTH.

In early ages of society, mankind were so completely occupied in providing themselves with the necessaries of life, that they had no leisure to attend to matters of mere amusement. But in process of time, when anxiety regarding the immediate means of subsistence is no longer felt, many individuals are at a loss how to occupy themselves ; hence a variety of pastimes have been invented, to fill up those irksome hours to which they would otherwise be liable. Such amusements are either of a public or of a private nature. In a general point of view, they are of use :—1. A mode of spending time *with innocence*, where mere amusement is alone attended to. 2. As a means by which the tone of the mind, exhausted by severe mental labour, may be restored. 3. As being incidentally attended with some commercial and agricultural advantages. 4. As a mode, in some cases, of diffusing knowledge ; and in others, of inculcating morality ; and, 5. As furnishing occupation to numbers of individuals, who, in a populous country, might otherwise find it difficult to procure the means of subsistence. How far they are conducive to health, or may be rendered so, is our present business to enquire.

#### *Public Amusements.—Rural Festivals.*

These are by far the most useful, and by far the most innocent of all public amusements. Sometimes under the names of *Fairs*, they are periodically held for commercial purposes, but with a mixture of rural festivity. Of late, rural festivals, however, have answered more important purposes. They have been rendered the medium of diffusing information of a most valu-



able description; of encouraging improvements in agriculture; and in remote parts of the country, they induce the principal families in the district and its neighbourhood, to assemble together, by means of which relations meet and renew their intimacy, and friendships are formed and confirmed. Where such events take place, the period of these meetings is looked forward to with pleasure; and amidst the innocent gratifications of social intercourse, the interests of agriculture, and the improvement of the country, are promoted.

Among rural festivals, horse-races may be included, though they have in many cases become an object of speculation, and a source of plunder rather than of amusement; yet, when they are restricted to the real object for which they were instituted, that of improving the speed, and perfecting the form, of the noblest of our domestic animals, they cannot well be objected to, furnishing a species of amusement accompanied by utility.

#### *Public Games and Tournaments.*

The Olympic Games, as exhibited to assembled Greece, were undoubtedly the most splendid of all public amusements; and they materially contributed to that elevation of mind, and splendour of genius, by which the Grecians were distinguished.

The tournaments in the days of chivalry, were likewise extraordinary public exhibitions, which are without a rival in these modern times, though they bear no comparison, in point of variety, to the games of Olympia, being restricted to martial sports. An occasional attendance on such scenes, if properly conducted, could not be unfavourable to health.

#### *Public Lectures.*

There is no amusement which seems to be more innocent, and at the same time more rational, than that of attending such public lectures as are calculated for the diffusion of useful knowledge, not as branches of education, but for the instruction of those who, though advanced in life, have not had the means of acquiring a knowledge of various arts and sciences, as chemistry, the principles of mechanics, &c., which are of such advantage to the human species. There surely cannot be a more unexceptionable mode of spending a leisure hour than in listening to the ingenious discourses of those, who explain to a numerous and intelligent audience, some important branch of knowledge, accompanied by useful experiments where they are necessary.

#### *Theatrical Representations.*

The advantage of theatrical representations has been much

disputed. By some, they are considered to be a useful means of inculcating the principles of morality. By others, they are condemned, as the source of infinite mischief. It must be admitted that they seldom do much good : but if they do no harm, it is ground sufficient for the government of a country to encourage and protect them ; more especially in great towns, where the people must be amused and occupied, otherwise they are apt to engage in plots, and conspiracies, to overthrow the government. In regard to the preservation of health—attending theatrical representations, is certainly unfavourable to that great object. The going to the theatre, and returning from it, is generally attended with difficulty, and exposure to cold ; and the air that is breathed in a crowded playhouse, where a great number of lights are likewise burning, cannot be wholesome.

*Private Amusements.—Music.*

Music is a valuable accomplishment, and a competent skill in it is, on many occasions, of considerable moment. It agreeably supplies a want of society, which cannot always be commanded ; it is the means of introduction to many respectable and valuable acquaintances. Few people dislike music ; and the individual who bestows his leisure hours on that innocent amusement, whilst he pleases himself, if he likewise entertains others, his labour will be amply repaid. Music will also divert him from the gaming-table, and various irregularities, in which he might otherwise have been tempted to indulge.

*Dancing.*

Under proper limitations, dancing is a proper amusement, especially in winter, when the heavy atmosphere, much rest, and much sitting, render the blood thick, and dispose persons to melancholy. Moderate dancing has every advantage of a gentle exercise, besides the beneficial effects produced on the mind, by cheerful company and music. But when carried to excess, or when performed in heated rooms, and under a confined and vitiated atmosphere, it is frequently attended with pernicious consequences, occasioning spitting of blood, consumption of the lungs, and inflammatory disorders. After dancing, cooling drinks, and above all, ice, as well as exposure to a draught of air, ought to be particularly avoided.

*Drawing.*

The art of drawing is one of the most necessary, as well as one of the politest accomplishments, that a young person of either sex can possess, and furnishes an agreeable source of

occupation and amusement. To travellers, it is particularly useful, enabling them to give any celebrated landscape, any peculiar dresses, or remarkable characters, &c. they meet with, by which their memoranda must be greatly embellished. But the power of drawing scientifically, complicated machines, engines, &c. with accuracy, and in different views, is by far the most important; and cannot be too strongly recommended to the attention of those, who wish to benefit their own country by visiting others.

#### *Chess.*

A knowledge of chess was formerly considered to be so important an accomplishment, that it generally made a part of the education of a gentleman. It is now less general, and games of easier play, and a lighter description, as backgammon and draughts, being sooner acquired, are more common, and better calculated for mere amusement: for chess requires much reflection and composure.

#### *Cards.*

These have long been the chief instrument of gaming, both for profit and amusement. They were invented towards the conclusion of the eleventh century, by Jaquemen Gringonneur, a painter in Paris, for the amusement of that unhappy Prince, Charles VI., in his lucid intervals. They were soon imported into England, and, for the benefit of the makers of cards in London, an act of parliament was passed, anno 1463, (3d Edward IV., c. 4.) prohibiting the importation of playing cards. The progress of card-playing was, at first, slow, but it has since become sufficiently rapid and extensive, to the ruin of numbers of unfortunate gamblers, and to the loss of many others, who spend too much of their time in that infatuating amusement. The thought which cards require, and the anxiety they occasion, when any considerable sum is at stake, are evidently injurious to health.

#### *Games of Chance.*

A violent passion for games of chance is attended with much mischief, both to the gamblers themselves, and to society. To the gamblers by dissipating their fortunes—by consuming their most precious hours—by injuring their health—and by making them neglect their most important duties. To society, by depriving it of the advantages it might have derived from a better application of the time and talents of many of its members. They have likewise been the means of introducing among the lower orders, idleness, theft and debauchery; and among the



higher, have occasioned the sudden desolation and ruin of ancient and respectable families, and an abandoned prostitution of every principle of honour and virtue, which has too often ended in suicide. Laws have in vain been enacted to prevent, or to punish this pernicious vice, or at least to place so dangerous a passion under some restraint.

*Conversation.*

Instead of cards or games of chance, why should not meetings be held, expressly for the purpose of rational conversation? On this subject Dr. Beddoes has justly observed, that the object for which people are to be assembled and held together, might be, to discuss the objects of nature, the processes of art, or some important branch of polite literature. These meetings might be rendered more interesting, by the introduction of boys and girls at the age when they begin to use their reason. The active and the best informed must provide entertainment for the circle, but the most passive part of the company would soon forget their listlessness; and in a zeal for obtaining useful information, would find a new pleasure in existence. By the exclusion of the petty malignant topics of common conversation, a better spirit, and more happy disposition would be created. It would be worthy the pen of our ablest author of fictitious biography, to describe the probable effects of such a system of communication among families, (*gradually* substituted for the present,) upon health, temper, and morals. The state of society, as it existed in Geneva, before the troubles in Europe, would afford many traits for this interesting picture. Those who addict themselves to card-playing, or to games of chance, soon became unfit for any other species of amusement. So fatal a propensity ought to be checked in the commencement, and the best means certainly is, that of conversation in society, or that of reading in private.

*Reading.*

But of all the sources of amusement, reading is unquestionably the most valuable. There will be found, not as in conversation, the hasty effusions of the moment, but reflections deeply considered, and stated with clearness and perspicuity. The anxious inquirer, when he reads, sits down to converse with all the most distinguished characters, that ancient or modern times have produced. No species of mental labour can be thought of, in which he will not find an instructor and a guide. His mind may be enriched by all the treasures that ages have produced. He may indulge himself, on the one hand, with the pleasantries of Le Sage, of Smollet, of Fielcing, or of

Cervantes; or, on the other, he may probe into the depths of the science of morals, for his direction in this world, or may arouse his hopes of a future state of happiness, by the doctrines of religion.

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### THE ARRANGEMENT OF A FRENCH DINNER.

As every species of luxurious gratification, or what in France is called the *sçavoir vivre*, together with the *iatrical*, or medical arrangement of dishes, has been carried to greater perfection in that country than in any other (insomuch, that it is said, the cooks must have consulted intelligent and beneficent physicians in their arrangement), it is proposed, therefore, to give a short account of the dinner in France, extracted from the author, who has most recently discussed that subject.

A great dinner, according to Grimod, in his *Almanac des Gourmands* (whose opinion is considered to be conclusive in such matters), ought to consist of four services:—1. The soups, the *hors d'œuvres*, *relevés*, and *entrées*.—2. The roast meats and sallads.—3. The cold pastry and *entremets*; and, 4. The dessert.

During winter, a good French dinner often begins with oysters, which are uniformly accompanied with white wine, especially Chablis, particularly agreeable on that occasion. The use of red wine with oysters would show a great want of *sçavoir vivre*, and is even pernicious to the health, as it generally produces indigestion.

There is no French dinner without soup at the commencement, which is regarded as a necessary preparation of the stomach, for the due digestion of more solid food. It is commonly followed by a libation of ordinary wine, the *coup d'après*, which is considered so wholesome after soup, that the proverb says, the physician thus loses a fee.

The soup is constantly followed by boiled beef, (the *bouille*), which is, however, sometimes preceded by anchovies, to stimulate the palate and appetite.

Small plates of radishes, eggs, &c. with butter of Bretagne, in little pots, form what are called the *hors d'œuvres*, or extraordinaries; but the delicious pastry called *petits pâtés*, usually follow the boiled beef.

The *hors d'œuvres*, are followed by *entrées* of fowl, in various shapes, fricassees, fricandeaux, cutlets, sweetbreads, &c.

The vegetables are served apart, and eaten by themselves.

A great singularity of the French table is, that fish is served

late, and not always at the same time, for they in general bring together all the boiled articles, whether fish or flesh, and all the roasted articles of both sorts. Sometimes fish dressed warm, may be eaten in the course of the second or third service: but the fish is often cold, and accompanies or follows the roti. This custom is said to be more agreeable to the stomach, than our fashion of beginning with the fish, which the French consider to be a crude food, of little nutrition, and often of difficult digestion, not being much acquainted with the superior sorts produced in other places, nor how much better they are consumed in a hot than in a cold state.

In consequence of this arrangement, and the aid of a variety of the most generous wines that France, Spain, Hungary, or other countries can produce, the consumption of the table is very great; and, it is said, that a person who leaves England with so weak a stomach, that it has long refused the luxury of two dishes, may, without inconvenience, taste of twenty at a French repast.

All this must be very acceptable to those to whom the pleasures of the table are a favourite, and perhaps a pre-eminent object; but it cannot ultimately tend to promote health or longevity.

In regard to dinners in this country, they are in general too quickly gone through: too much meat is put upon the table at once, and sufficient time is not allowed to masticate the food properly; nor should each division of dishes be hurried upon the table, as well as from it, but an interval allowed for conversation, to give the stomach some rest, and not to overload it too much at once, which necessarily occasions a defective digestion.

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#### ON THE BEST MEANS OF PRESERVING FOOD.

Some articles of food cannot be consumed too rapidly, after they are obtained. This is particularly the case with the more delicate substances, as eggs, milk, and butter, the class of fish, and the generality of the vegetable tribe. Some kinds of fruit may be excepted, as the pine-apple, the orange, and the pear, when pulled not perfectly ripe. Various articles of animal food however, as has been already observed, are the better of being preserved for some time, at least in countries with a cold temperature. In the warm climates, indeed, where excess of heat renders the process of putrefaction immediate, the meat is used in its best state while it is yet warm, and almost before life is extinguished. In this country, on the contrary, on the extinction of life, a density or firmness of fibre takes place. Hence new



killed meat is hard, tough, and not easily broken down. This state, however, alters as soon as the process of putrefaction begins, which soon loosens the connexion of every part. No animal food, therefore, should be used in this country until it has been preserved for some time, according to the coldness or the warmth of the season. In regard to wild animals, this rule is often carried so far as to render them unwholesome, and almost unfit for use.

Men, however, soon become desirous, not only to preserve food for a few days, and to render it more palatable, but also to see the necessity of laying up, while they have it in their power, a store of provision for their future use, in order to prevent any risk of scarcity or famine. The various arts which have been discovered for that purpose may be classed under the following general heads:—Drying in the sun; artificial heat; salting; pickling; preserving by butter; sugar; ice; and by various other substances.

The simple process of drying by exposure to the sun and air, was probably the first means thought of to preserve vegetable or animal food. Drying grapes, is an idea which nature itself pointed out to the savages of hot climates; and, as it appears that several tribes or nations had originally no other mode of dressing their food, but by exposing it to the rays of the sun, this would furnish a hint of the means by which animal food might be preserved. Indeed, in dry climates, fish are easily cured by exposure to the sun and air, with the addition of saline particles, or even washing them in salt water.

Accident would soon discover, even to wandering savages, that the smoke of the fires they used might be made applicable to the same purpose, more especially with a little addition of salt. The use of artificial heat was afterwards extended in different ways, in particular to the baking of fruit. By evaporating the water from fruits, that is, by drying them, and expelling both air and moisture, we lessen their disposition to ferment, and make them less flatulent and more nutritive.

Salting is a process of very general use, though, with a few exceptions, confined to animal food. Sour crout, and salted mushrooms, the former used in Germany, and the other in Russia, and salted olives, are almost the only exceptions. The most proper kinds of animal substances to be salted, are those that possess in their composition a large proportion of oil or fat. On this extensive subject, the following observations occur:—1. It is most useful to apply the salt to the article cured, as soon as possible after the death of the animal: it is by this means that the Dutch cure their herrings in such perfection. At Algiers,

from the heat of the climate, they are obliged to salt their meat immediately after it is killed; and in consequence of that plan being adopted, their salted provisions, it is said, *are peculiarly excellent*. This is a hint of which we ought to avail ourselves in this country; and a moment's consideration must satisfy every reflecting mind, how much better the meat must be, when salted before any putrefaction has had time to commence, than after. 2. Much also must depend upon the purity of the salt; and it is unfortunate, that in this country, financial regulations should prevent that valuable article from being properly manufactured. 3. Salted provisions, when imperfectly cured, after putrefaction has begun, or when improper materials have been made use of, must be a sapless and unwholesome diet, drained of all its nutritive juices: living on such food, therefore, must exhaust the power and action of the stomach, and no proper supply of chyle can enter the circulation. It is not to be wondered at, therefore, that persons living, during a long voyage, on such food, should be afflicted with the scurvy. For the use of working people, however, provisions lightly salted are preferable to fresh. The porters and coal-heavers of London, who are obliged to devour great quantities of meat, as well as to drink great quantities of porter, in order to support themselves in the great labour and fatigue they go through, find it more salutary to live upon salt meat, which does not digest as soon as the fresh, and is not so apt to produce fluxes; and ploughmen who have strong stomachs, and quick digestion, are more properly and more safely fed on rusty bacon, than on the more digestible foods, provided it is duly qualified by vegetables. Cadogan asserts, that the same salt, seasoning, and smoke, which harden and preserve salted meats from putrefaction, before they are eaten, keep them from dissolution afterwards, so that they are never properly digested at all, nor is it possible that any good nourishment should ever come from them. Dr. Falconer, on the other hand, observes, that many valetudinarians, whose stomachs could not bear a piece of veal, lamb, or chicken, from their flesh being of so viscid a nature, have easily digested a piece of ham or dried beef, which proves that salt meat is not so difficult of digestion as Cadogan and other authors have maintained. It is also urged in favour of salted meat and fish, that though they are less nutritive, yet they are more digestible, the salt increasing the stimulus on the stomach. This, however, is not the case, if they have acquired any degree of rancidity. M. Gosse found that fried bacon and eggs were very indigestible, the eggs, in particular, becoming highly alkaline in the stomach, yet lean salted beef proved easy of di-

gestion. Salted meat, therefore, can only be very injurious, when, by long keeping, the putrescency of the meat prevails over the preserving power of the salt, and part of the salt becomes ammoniacal.

Pickling is properly performed by the use of vinegar and aromatics. It is applied both to animal and vegetable substances. In the first case, it is intended for food; in the second, as condiment or seasoning. Pickled salmon is an article of the first sort: when eaten cold, it is reckoned heavy; but it is a great improvement on that sort of food, to warm it again, by steam, or in hot water, when it resembles fresh salmon, with the addition of vinegar.

Many articles also, particularly fruits, are preserved by sugar, either in a dry or in a wet state. This includes a material branch of the art of the confectioner. M. Gosse found, that fruits boiled with sugar were very easy of digestion, and that any tendency to fermentation in fruits was greatly corrected by the addition of sugar and spices.

The art of preserving meat, fish, &c. in ice or snow, has long been known, in various countries, as in Russia, Spain, and China, but has only been recently attempted in Great Britain. It has hitherto been solely applied to the conveyance of salmon from the remote parts of Scotland to London, a plan originally recommended by that respectable patriot, George Dempster, Esq. It is remarked, that unless the ice is very gradually dissolved, the fish is very apt to lose the firmness of its texture.

The principal difficulty in preserving meat, being the total exclusion of the air; one mode of effecting this is by *potting*, as it is termed, the meat or fish being put up in pots of earthenware, and covered with melted butter. This plan is not carried to any great extent.

Meat might probably be preserved in various other ways, as by means of gum, or by meal. It is well known, that a leg of mutton has been kept for a length of time in a fresh state, excluded from the air, by means of oatmeal. It is said, that game or poultry may be long preserved, by tying a string tight round the neck, and excluding air. If any meat is tainted, a piece of charcoal, from three to six inches, should be wrapped in a piece of muslin, or thin linen, and boiled with the meat, and any putrefied taste or smell will thus be destroyed.

There are few objects which require more public attention, than to ascertain the best means of preserving meat in a wholesome state, more especially for the use of our seamen, and for the lower orders of the community, to whom salted provisions are not only a safe, but a salutary source of aliment.



### ON THE MEDICINAL PROPERTIES OF THE BATH WATER.

The Bath water, as Dr. Falconer says, when drank fresh from the spring, has in most persons the effect of raising, and rather accelerating the pulse, increasing the heat, and exciting the secretions. These symptoms generally come on very soon after drinking the waters, and with certain habits will last for a considerable time. It is, however, particularly in invalids, that they are produced at all. The above-mentioned effects then demonstrate, that Bath water possesses heating properties; but at the same time shew that its stimulus is of a peculiar kind, and acts more immediately on the nervous system.

Besides these, it has also a considerable disposition to pass off by urine, even when taken in a moderate dose; and this may be considered as one of its most salutary operations.

#### *Its Effect on the Bowels,*

Like that of all waters which do not contain any purgative salt, is very various; but in general, a costive habit of body comes on after the use of this water, not so much owing to any astringency which it may possess, as from the want of an active stimulus to the intestines, and probably also from the determination which it occasions to the skin; for if perspiration is suddenly checked, during a course of Bath water, a purging sometimes supervenes.

These circumstances seem to shew, that the stimulant properties of this water are primarily and more especially excited in the stomach, for it is there only that we can discover any thing peculiar in its operation, and it occasions, at times, a variety of symptoms, sometimes slight and transient, but at other times so considerably permanent, as to render its continuance improper. When the waters are likely to prove beneficial, they excite, on being first taken, a pleasing glow in the stomach, to which soon succeed an increase of appetite and spirits, and a rapid determination to the kidneys. On the other hand, when they occasion headache, thirst, and dryness of the tongue, when they sit heavy on the stomach, and produce sickness, and do not pass off by urine or perspiration, their operation is unfavourable, and their further employment is not to be advised.

One of the most important uses of the Bath water is, however,

#### *Its External Application;*

And its effects here appear to me to differ in no respect from

those of common water, heated to the same temperature, and similarly applied.

Bath certainly possesses considerable advantages, in having a supply of water sufficient to fill the numerous reservoirs for immersion, and to preserve them at a steady temperature. But its eulogists, not content with this, have affirmed, that even when used externally, it exercises a stimulant power on the skin, which renders it preferable to common water. One of its most zealous advocates, Dr. Falconer, admits that, as a mere detergent, Bath water is inferior to rain water, since it is very hard, curdles soap, and has consequently a much less cleansing power; yet he asserts that it is superior as a stimulant application.

This, I own, appears to me extremely doubtful; for, whatever minute portion of active matter it may contain, that is capable of acting on the stomach, it appears by the most accurate chemical investigation, to be far too small in quantity, and too insignificant, to be felt by that less sensible organ, the skin. Such being the composition of the water, it is indeed difficult to conceive how, when used only as a bath, it should be more stimulant than common water; should raise the pulse and animal heat to a higher degree; should occasion much less relaxation and faintness, and leave the bathers more alert and vigorous for the whole day.

We are even assured, that these natural warm baths produce less perspiration, yet that they increase the urinary discharge much more than a common warm bath, and other circumstances equally difficult to be admitted. As all these effects, however, are only alleged to be greater in degree, than those occasioned by a common warm bath, we should, I think, refer them to the greater equability of temperature existing in the large natural baths; to the quantity of aqueous vapour in which the bathers are constantly immersed; and in short, to any accidental difference either in the bath or in the state of the patient, rather than to admit an opinion so contrary to all probability. One circumstance I apprehend, will particularly give a preference to the natural bath, which is, the constant motion which the patients are using when immersed; the size of the public baths being such as to admit the bathers to walk about with great freedom; and this alone will be sufficient, I think, to account for any slight difference that may be observed between this and a common bath. Most of the natural thermal waters, possess this advantage of copious supply, a convenience which can seldom be commanded to any great extent in other situations.

The warm bath is used either generally or locally. The latter

consists in pumping the water for a considerable time on the part affected. This mode, which is much employed at Bath, as well as at most of the thermal springs, both in this and other countries, is here called *dry pumping*, because in it only one part of the body is wetted, whilst the rest is kept dry. The continuance of this application is measured by the number of strokes of the pump, and from fifty to one hundred are generally used at a time. This is in many cases an excellent remedy, and the water thus applied, as it comes immediately from the fountain head, is of a considerably higher temperature than in the large baths, which require some hours in filling, and thus lose several degrees of their heat.

The diseases for which these celebrated waters are resorted to are very numerous, and are some of the most important and difficult of cure of all that come under medical treatment. In most of them the bath is used along with the waters as an internal medicine.

*Diseases in which the Water is Efficacious.*

The general indications of the propriety of using this medicinal water are in those cases where a gentle, gradual, and permanent stimulus is required, and where there is little to be feared from the sudden and transient heat, and increase of pulse that so often attend its exhibition. Bath water may certainly be considered as a chalybeate, in which the iron is very small in quantity, but in a highly active form; and the degree of temperature is in itself a stimulus, often of considerable power. These circumstances, again, point out the necessity of certain cautions, which from a view of the mere quantity of foreign contents might be thought superfluous. Although, in estimating the powers of this medicine, allowance must be made for local prejudice in its favour, there can be no doubt but that its employment is hazardous, and might often do considerable mischief in various cases of active inflammation, especially in irritable habits, where there exists a strong tendency to hectic fever; and even in the less inflammatory state of diseased and suppurating viscera, and in general, wherever a quick pulse and dry tongue indicate a degree of general fever. The cases therefore to which this water are peculiarly suited are mostly of the chronic kind, and by a steady perseverance in this remedy very obstinate disorders have given way. A few of the principal we shall enumerate.

Chlorosis, a disease which at all times is much relieved by steel, and will bear it even where there is a considerable degree of feverish irritation, receives particular benefit from the Bath water, and its use as a warm bath excellently contributes to re-



move that languor of circulation and obstruction of the natural evacuations which constitute the leading features of this common and troublesome disorder.

The complicated diseases which are often brought on by a long residence in hot climates, affecting the secretion of bile, the functions of the stomach and alimentary canal, and which generally produce organic derangement in some part of the hepatic system, often receive much benefit from the Bath water, if used at a time when suppurative inflammation is not actually present. I can only, however, consider it as an auxiliary of some efficacy, but by no means as forming the principal part of the plan of cure.

Another and less active disease of the biliary organs, the jaundice, which arises from a simple obstruction of the gall ducts, is still oftener removed by both the internal and external use of these waters.

Bath is better known than most other watering places, as a resort for patients afflicted with these disorders, which, at first, and in their most inflammatory state, affect the whole constitution, and afterwards leave a weakness, loss of motion, pain, or other diseased condition of particular limbs. Of this kind are gout, rheumatism, and several other disorders, which give rise to many varieties of paralysis. It is not my intention to enter into a history of these formidable complaints, which often require the utmost skill in their treatment; but merely to offer a few remarks concerning the use of this remedy in such cases. We should always keep in mind that this water, whether from its warmth, or from other causes, though capable of increasing a febrile state of body, where such already exists, will seldom, if ever, produce it in a healthy subject. In each of these disorders there is at one time or other a high phlogistic diathesis, which is generally so well marked as not to be easily mistaken. Most of the patients affected with them do not apply to Bath till long after the first inflammatory stage is over, and this is especially the case in rheumatism and gout.

Paralytic affections are the effect of a variety of morbid causes, but are often connected with original structure, and a constitutional determination to the head; and in these disorders alone does it appear, that this water can ever be so misapplied as suddenly to produce considerable mischief. In almost every other case we have ample time to watch the effects of this remedy, and if it proves detrimental we may stop its application before any real injury be done. In rheumatic complaints, the power of this water, as Dr. Charlton well observes, is chiefly confined to that species of rheumatism which is unattended with inflamma-

tion, or in which the patient's pains are not increased by the warmth of his bed. A great number of the patients that resort to Bath, especially those that are admitted into the hospital, are affected with rheumatism in all its stages, and it appears from the most respectable testimony that a large proportion of them receive a permanent cure.

In gout, the greatest benefit is derived from this water in those cases where it produces anomalous affections of the head, stomach, and bowels; and it is here a principal advantage to be able to bring by warmth that active local inflammation in any limb which relieves all the other troublesome and dangerous symptoms. Hence it is that Bath water is commonly said to produce the gout, by which is only meant, that where persons have a gouty affection shifting from place to place, and thereby much disordering the system, the internal and external use of the Bath water will soon bring on a general increase of action, indicated by a flushing in the face, fulness in the circulating vessels, and relief of the dyspeptic symptoms; and the whole disorder will terminate in a regular fit of the gout in the extremities, which is the crisis always to be wished for. That painful and obstinate colic produced by the poison of lead, and the paralysis or loss of nervous power in particular limbs, which is one of its most serious consequences, is found to be peculiarly relieved by the use of the Bath waters, more especially when applied externally, either generally or upon the part affected. In this disorder there is seldom, if ever, any thing to be apprehended from the stimulant effect of these waters, but all the action which it does exert is highly salutary. It forms, therefore, a very important remedy in these cases, at all times, but especially after the first affection of the bowels is removed, and only the partial paralysis remains.

Besides these disorders, for which the Bath waters may be said to be peculiarly calculated, there are others in which this medicine probably operates, principally as mere water of a certain temperature. Such are in general all those for which warm bathing and a warm diluent may at any time be of advantage, and which therefore do not concern its powers as a mineral water. The cure of various cutaneous complaints, and the relief produced in hypochondriasis, by the warm bath, and much of the benefit derived from the water in dyspeptic affections, spasm of the stomach or intestinal canal, and similar disorders, may, I think, fairly be attributed to this cause alone; and therefore, to complete the history of the medical powers of this as well as every other water, I must beg to refer the reader to those

parts of this work that treat of the warm bath, and the aqueous regimen.

*The Quantity Necessary.*

The quantity of water taken daily during a full course, and by adults, is recommended by Dr. Falconer not to exceed a pint and a half, or two pints; and in chlorosis with irritable habits, not more than one pint is employed. The morning is constantly the time for taking the waters, and the daily allowance is generally divided into three portions, of which two may be taken before breakfast at different times, and one afterwards. As the water of the Cross Bath is considered as less stimulant, and is certainly lower in temperature, this is sometimes introduced, by a refinement in practice, where the King's Bath is supposed to be too heating. From the difference in the calculations it is impossible to give the precise dose of foreign ingredients taken daily with such a quantity of water; but according to our general estimate, it is probable that each dose of half a pint contains no more than half a cubic inch, or about two drachms in bulk of carbonic acid, and as much azotic gas, and perhaps five grains of soluble neutral salts, and the same quantity of earths and earthy salts. The proportion of iron it would perhaps be of more consequence to ascertain with exactness, but this is so small, that the highest computation would not make it so much as  $\frac{1}{70}$  of a grain in half a pint of the water, and therefore we cannot at present come to any exact conclusion upon this subject. The whole, however, furnishes a striking example of considerable effects produced by quantities of active substances, so very minute, that in any other situation they would be thought, and perhaps justly, to be perfectly inadequate to bring on any change whatever in any function of the human body; and therefore, whatever powers Bath water may have above those of simple warm water, they are eminently due to the peculiar mode of combination of its foreign contents.

The time at which the bath is made use of is generally the morning, which is partly for convenience, and partly because this has usually been considered as the best time for this application. This is by no means, however, invariably the case, and in using the cold bath it is often necessary to deviate from this general rule. From two to three times a week the warm bathing is usually employed, and the patients continue in from ten minutes to half an hour. If it produces headache or any degree of vertigo, it must be used very carefully in persons of a full plethoric habit; and the time of remaining in the bath is in a great measure to be regulated by the sensations of the patient,



who should always leave it when any degree of lassitude or faintness comes on. The choice of the different baths is here a circumstance of more importance, perhaps, than when the water is employed for internal use, since there is a very decided difference in their respective temperatures. That of the Cross Bath is about ninety-four; whereas the Hot Bath is at least eight degrees higher, and therefore the former is, in fact, only a tepid bath, being of a less heat than that of the human body, though it feels warm to the skin, even on the first immersion. The topical warm bath, applied by pumping on any diseased part; from the impetus of the falling water, is always a greater stimulus than mere immersion, and as the system is not thereby generally affected, it may be used in every case more frequently and with greater freedom than any other way in which these waters are ever employed.

The waters of Bath are certainly among those that require a considerable time to be persevered in before a full and fair trial can be made. Their operation is very gradual, as indeed might be expected from a medicine which shews so few sensible properties or immediate effects. Frequently, too, they are apt to lie heavy upon the stomach when they have been taken for some weeks, and when this is the case they must be intermitted for a time, and may afterwards be resumed. Indeed it must be owned, that a large proportion of the patients who resort to these springs are afflicted with disorders that are in themselves only to be palliated, or, at least, are always very difficult of cure.

Chronic rheumatism, habitual gout, dyspepsia from a long course of high and intemperate living, and the like, are disorders not to be removed by a short course of any mineral water, and many of those who have once received benefit at these fountains find it necessary to make an annual visit to them, to repair the waste in health during the preceding year. However, with well regulated expectations, and a judicious mode of treatment, the invalid will seldom be here disappointed, and we may fairly consider the thermal springs of Bath as among the most valuable natural waters which our island possesses.

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#### ON WHOLESOME OR UNWHOLESOME FOOD, AND THE POWERS OF DIGESTION.

Man, in common with every other terrestrial animal, derives sustenance from the earth, either by consuming the vegetable productions it supplies, or by devouring those animals who make them their food. When the vital principle is transferred from vegetable to animal matter, it is considerably condensed,

and hence it is unexceptionably true that animals of the graminivorous tribe require abundantly more food and more frequent repetitions of it than the carnivorous. Considered abstractedly, then, we may confidently state that animal food contains more nourishment than vegetable, but the quantum of nutritious matter contained in any specific substance affords no ground of predilection for its use, it being only so far nutritious, as it is amenable to the action of the digestive organs; and this idea has been long ago inculcated in the plain but expressive proverb, "that what is one man's meat is another man's poison."

If the food taken in is of such a texture that the powers of the stomach are not capable of extracting the nutritious principle; or, in other words, if the tenacity with which it attaches itself to the substance thus taken in, is greater than that with which the vitality is attached to the stomach itself, such food always disagrees, producing nausea, heaviness, vomiting, and sometimes death: hence the necessity of culinary processes, which by diminishing the tenacity or destroying the texture of our food, facilitates its digestion.

"No food," says Dr. Fordyce, "is in itself wholesome or unwholesome, but as it is compared with the present state of the stomach, and other organs of digestion."

"He that should ask," says Van Swieten, "what food is wholesome, might as well ask which is the best wind, without saying whither he is bound."

"Indigested food," says Sanctorius, "by how much the more nourishment it contains is so much the worse, because it occasions either a greater increase of weight, or degenerates into a greater corruption."

This is the reason why certain substances, not very different in their external appearances from those we eat, are universally abandoned.

It may be asked, why do we not eat dogs, foxes, rats, asses, &c., not because it requires the sanction of fashion, but because the stomach is incapable of extracting their nutritious principle. They are therefore, in common language, said to be too strong for the stomach.

I am aware that instances can be found of people during a siege having been obliged to eat this kind of food, but what may have been occasionally done under very peculiar circumstances of fasting and famine, cannot be alleged as a ground of argument for ordinary purposes.

The explanation already offered will best illustrate the effects which ensue from eating fish. Oysters when quite alive, and

eaten immediately on a shell being opened, are to many a very invigorating repast; but when not quite alive and healthy, no fish is more likely to disagree: and besides it might be mentioned, that oysters so putrid as to produce violent sickness and vomiting in the delicate habit of an Englishman, would be eaten by a Russian with peculiar relish and satisfaction.

Mr. Thomas, in his description of fish in certain parts of the West Indies, informs us, that at different seasons of the year the same fish is both poisonous and nutritious; when poisonous, it acts by robbing the stomach of its vital principle; if it does this in a slight degree, nausea and vomiting are the consequence; if in a more considerable degree, death, and that sometimes suddenly.

Hence a very common cause of typhus fever, mentioned by authors, "*victus pravus et putridus*;" and whoever will investigate the cases which occur of this description, will be convinced that it is a very prevailing cause of typhus among the lower classes in this metropolis.

"Indigested animal food," says Dr. G. Fordyce, "may putrify while it remains on the stomach, and by its operation produce fever, which has been called violent, putrid, malignant, &c. of which I have known more than one instance."

The effects of putrid diet have been observed on animals. Thucydides tells us, that when the plague raged at Athens, and multitudes of bodies lay unburied in the streets, the carnivorous birds, who, impelled by hunger, gnawed these bodies, very soon expired.

A German writer informs us, that during the prevalence of the plague at Vienna in 1713, it was observed that flies which sipped the blood of an infected person instantly expired.

It is in this manner those substances produce their deleterious effect, not from any peculiar acrimony, or from any sedative or narcotic principle, but from their power of robbing the stomach of its vitality. For the same reason, animals which are destroyed by lightning when in perfect health, are unfit for food, because it is well known that when death is produced by this means, putrefaction takes place with uncommon rapidity.

Thus the mighty mystery with regard to most poisonous substances may be unravelled, and the more it is examined, the more will the evidence of facts be found to coincide in favour of it.

The mildest article of food, if this opinion be correct, may prove pernicious on certain occasions.

Thus when a person who has lain ill of a fever for some weeks begins to feel a return of appetite, the greatest care is necessary



in gratifying his wishes not to exceed the capacity of his digestive powers; for if nausea ensue, and his fever return, he will infallibly die after such a relapse.

Like a fire just kindled, a little fuel would increase the flame, but a superabundance would extinguish it.

This, it may be said, is not a fair illustration, because in this instance the body is already weakened by disease, but the effect is the same when no cause of debility has preceded.

Sir Everard Home, in a little paper on the stomach, recorded in the Philosophical Transactions, says, "I have known an instance of a child three years old, who being left alone at dinner ate so large a quantity of apple-pudding that it died, which raised a suspicion of its being poisoned. On examination after death, the whole stomach was distended to its utmost extent, and rendered quite tense, which was the only apparent cause of the child's death."

Morgagni relates the history of a woman, forty years of age, who having eaten onions preserved in salt and vinegar, with bread made from the meal of chesnuts, began immediately to complain of pain in her stomach, which growing more and more violent, at the end of three hours after eating this meal, she died in cold sweats and a fatal syncope which had seized her.

The body being opened on account of a suspicion that she had been poisoned, every thing was found to be in its natural state, except that the stomach was distended to a very great degree.

Bonetus, likewise, in his Sepulchretum, states the case of a boy who died in three hours from eating immoderately of grapes; and Etmuller furnishes an instance of one who, having eaten a melon boiled with milk, and afterwards drank cold water, died suddenly in a few hours. It would be an endless task to enumerate such cases.

From what has been advanced, it is obvious that the appetite for food is a natural instinct, which ought to be consulted rather than directed. It is an instinct which, independent of reason, teaches us what to renounce, and what to prefer: and we seldom eat what is pernicious, without feeling an inward conviction that the stomach does not approve it; hence this organ has been emphatically denominated *the Conscience of the Body*.

The first impression of putrid food is made on the sensorium through the medium of the olfactory nerves; and it is a curious circumstance, that in all animals the nose is placed in close proximity to the mouth, undoubtedly for the purpose of bringing the food under the examination of this sense.

I have detailed these facts relative to digestion, as illustrative

of the truth of the position, that "digestion is that process by which the vitality of the food is separated from the substance with which it is combined."

### DISEASES OF CHILDREN.

Among the very numerous diseases of children, none gives greater trouble than the scabby eruption at the roots of the hair, commonly termed, scald-head; and by the doctors, *tinea*, and *porrigo*; for the purpose of blinding the people, and giving themselves the air of knowing ones among their own tribe. The worst circumstances attending this disorder is its obstinacy and its infectious nature, being readily communicated from one child to another by contact. When the scabs are once formed, they confine the acrid matter under them, which frets and irritates the skin, and tends to spread the disease.

The first thing, therefore, that is indispensable to the cure, is carefully loosening the dried scabs and picking them away. Soap and warm water is the best thing for this purpose, and it ought to be carefully attended to both morning and evening. A single neglect will lose you all the ground you may have previously gained. All the hair which will come away without pain ought also to be removed; then you may try the

#### *Cleansing Wash for Scald Head.*

Take half an ounce of sulphate of potass,  
one pint of lime water,  
one ounce of soap liniment.

Mix, and make a lotion, to be applied twice or thrice a day.

As no one wash, nor ointment, however, will continue above eight days to improve the eruption, which becomes accustomed to its stimulus, you ought to change this as soon as it loses its effect for the

#### *Camomile Lotion.*

Take half a pint of strong camomile tea,  
fifteen or twenty drops of the liquor of oxymuriate of quicksilver.

Mix, and apply twice or thrice a day. This is also excellent for old sores.

It might aid the cure were a vapour bath of camomile or sulphur applied to this part alone, which could be easily done by a bladder, or oil silk, applied tightly over the scalp and the vapour let into it.

Formerly a wash of tobacco was held in much esteem, and lately, the water obtained at the coal-gas works has been highly spoken of; but we are sorry to say that all remedies are often found unavailing, and the disease will run on for months in spite of the best and most skilful treatment.

## ON DEAFNESS AND ITS CURE.

The causes of deafness are numerous. It is often produced by an accumulation of the secretion of the ear, termed wax; in which case, the ear should be syringed every morning with warm water and soap, till the hardened wax be entirely removed, and a little wool or cotton, moistened with a few drops of the following mixture, introduced after each time of syringing, and continued for some weeks afterwards, to prevent a recurrence of the accumulation of wax:—

*Oil Mixture for Deafness.*

Take half an ounce of camphorated olive oil,  
thirty drops of the oil of tartar.

Mix well together, by shaking them in a phial.

When deafness arises from palsy of the nerve of hearing, electric sparks to the ear, a blister behind them, and the use of Asarabacca snuff, are most powerful remedies. It will also be proper to improve the general health of the system by the use of medicines calculated to promote digestion, and give energy to the nervous system, as the following:—

*Bitter Mixture for Nervous Deafness.*

Take six ounces of the infusion of dandelion,  
half an ounce of volatile tincture of valerian,  
three drachms of compound spirit of lavender.

Mix, and take three table spoonfuls, three times a day.

Washing the head with warm water every morning, will also prove very beneficial, and for this purpose the head should be shaved. A flannel cap should be worn during the night, and a wig lined with flannel in the day time.

When deafness is attended with ulcerations of the internal part of the ear which is known by a discharge of matter, the ulcer should be healed as soon as possible, by syringing the ear every morning and evening with the following lotion made a little warm:—

*Lotion for Deafness.*

Take two drachms of Egyptian honey,  
eight ounces of rose water.

Mix, and keep for use.

This diseased state of the ear, in which the drum is more or less injured, frequently follows the scarlet fever, and is generally incurable, in consequence of a portion of the drum being destroyed, or the surrounding bone of the skull having become rotten. When deafness is occasioned by obstructions in the tube of the ear, preventing the passage of the air into the internal ear, the tube should be syringed with warm water and soap.



OF THE INFLUENCE OF HABITUAL INDIGESTION ON OTHER DISEASES.

Dr. Philip, in his Appendix to the Treatise on Indigestion, says, that so general a complaint is indigestion in this country, and so much does it influence other diseases, that there could not perhaps be a more useful treatise, than one on the manner in which the nature and treatment of other diseases are influenced by their concurrence with it. I need hardly say that the subject is much too extensive to admit of any thing like a general view of it being attempted here. In my Treatise on Indigestion, I have made some observations on its concurrence with fever, properly so called; and I shall here say a few words on its concurrence with two other diseases, which are essentially influenced by it, and with which it has happened to me very often to see it combined.

Of local diseases, we should expect to find those most influenced by indigestion, which have their seat in those organs which most sympathize with the digestive organs. Thus it is, that in all affections of the brain and lungs, the effects of this sympathy are very striking; and it appears, from what is said of the third stage of indigestion, in the treatise just referred to, that we have reason to believe that some of the most severe affections of both these organs are often even caused by it.

It is remarkable, that although those who have long laboured under indigestion, are more subject to inflammatory affections than those in health, they are much less subject to their more acute forms, all the diseases of habitual dyspeptics partaking more or less of the chronic nature of the habitual affection. They are rarely attacked, for example, with the acute inflammation of the brain and lungs to which the more robust are subject; but in them, with milder symptoms, these diseases are often equally, or more dangerous, which arises from several causes: the previous debility; the means of relief being more circumscribed, for habitual dyspeptics, even where they do not appear much debilitated, generally bear loss of blood ill; the continual irritation of the habitual disease, and the digestive organs, generally partaking of that which has supervened. Besides, in proportion as the system is debilitated, its healing powers, on which the success of all our means depends, are impaired.

The frequent obscurity of the symptoms, by which the state of the digestive organs is ascertained in such cases, may also be

ranked among the sources of danger; for in consequence of it, the attention of the practitioner is often confined to the symptoms indicating the inflammation of the brain, or lungs, not without surprise that affections apparently much less severe than those he has been accustomed to see yield to his measures, should here resist them. This naturally induces him to increase their power, which, unfortunately, generally makes a greater impression on the strength than on the disease.

The best chance of saving the patient under such circumstances, is correcting, as quickly as we can, the increased derangement of the digestive organs, which is supporting the new disease; and it is of great consequence to effect this by means as little debilitating as possible. The debility previously induced on the nervous system in such cases, is always a principal source of the danger; and it is impossible to restore its vigour while the causes which have impaired it continue. Thus it is, that inflammation of the brain in those who have suffered from long-protracted disorder of the digestive organs, so generally proves fatal; and that the patient sometimes sinks without the usual fore-runners of such a termination.

Both diseases prey on the sources of nervous power, which is essential to life in every part of our frame; and death often suddenly closes the scene, when a common observer can see no cause for the extreme loss of strength which the patient has evidently sustained. There are few cases in this country whose changes are so rapid, and which, after a certain period, become so unmanageable, as the combination we are here considering.

Physicians have always been too much inclined to regard the nervous system, as far as relates to the functions of life, merely as the organ of sensation; and this opinion has been greatly strengthened by the experiments of Haller, which proved that the heart, for a certain time, is capable of its functions, independently of that system; from which he and his followers inferred, that the nervous system has no direct power over the heart. But it appears, from experiments which the Royal Society did me the honour to publish many years ago, that although the power of the heart is not immediately dependent on the nervous system, that system is not only capable of directly influencing all its motions, but even of directly destroying the power on which they depend; and even this does not seem to be the most essential respect in which the life of the animal body is under the dominion of the nervous system; for it appears from other experiments, the accuracy of which is now generally admitted, that on the nervous power not only the function of many, but the structure of all the vital organs de-

pend; and that the ganglionic system of nerves, so far from being merely an organ of sensation, is itself as much a vital organ as the heart or lungs, and as essential to life, although not as immediately so.

To this powerful influence of the nervous system we must ascribe many of the phenomena observed in protracted cases of indigestion, by which the functions of that system are impaired, and sometimes at length subdued; and many of the phenomena which arise from a combination of indigestion with other diseases. Can the influence of such a cause be confined to one class of diseases? the attentive practitioner will observe it pervading every complaint of the dyspeptic; and it is unsafe to disregard it in any of his more serious diseases. It is of the first importance, therefore, in all such cases as that we have been considering, to ascertain the state of the digestive organs.

The principal symptoms by which the presence of the affection of these organs is here ascertained, and its degree estimated, are nothing more than tenderness, and more or less fulness in the epigastric region, symptoms which will never be mentioned to the practitioner, and consequently will pass unnoticed if he does not inquire for them. I have in hundreds of instances, where serious disease was kept up by this cause alone, seen immediate and general relief obtained by relieving these symptoms, which may generally be done at little expense of strength; a relief which the most powerful measures had not previously been able to procure.

It may be said, perhaps, that it is difficult to suppose that an irritation, capable of so much mischief, should betray itself by so few symptoms, and those of so slight a nature; the reply is, that many of its other symptoms are mingled with, and consequently obscured by those of the additional disease, and that the most severe irritation of the digestive organs often shows itself only by affections of distant parts, the head for example, or the chest. The obstinacy of the case before us is the effect, and therefore its symptoms are the symptoms of this irritation. The fulness and tenderness of the epigastric region are only the means by which we ascertain the seat of the irritation; a point which, from the power of the sympathy of parts, it is often difficult to determine; and I can say, from very extensive experience, they are means that will seldom deceive us, if the examination be made in the way above pointed out.

Luckily, inflammation of the brain, or its membranes, is by no means a common disease, and therefore its concurrence with protracted indigestion is rare; but the combination of the



latter with inflammatory affections of the chest, is among the cases of most frequent occurrence.

It is the duty of every practitioner to inquire into the previous state and habits of his patient; and if he finds they have been those of the dyspeptic, he may suspect, in inflammatory affections of the head and chest, that the digestive organs partake of them, and be assured that, if such be the case, his means will very probably fail, if directed only to the part more prominently affected. Indeed, such is the sympathy of these organs with every other part, that it is a good, and it is surely a very easy, precaution to inquire into the state of them in all cases. This can never do harm, and much harm I have often witnessed from its having been neglected. It is the more necessary, because, even in cases where there has been no previous affection of them, the disease of other parts often spreads to them, which is particularly apt to happen in the case at present before us. Even in inflammation of the brain, induced by a blow on the head, it is by no means uncommon for that of the liver to accompany it, on the treatment of which the event of the case, in a great measure, always depends.

There is something peculiar in the sympathy which exists between the brain and liver, as the fact just stated evinces, and which still more strikingly appears from the circumstance, that while, even in the most violent inflammation of the stomach and bowels, the head generally remains clear, (I have seen this disease prove fatal within twenty-four hours from the attack, the head remaining perfectly clear to the last) delirium is a common symptom of inflamed liver. The same thing is conspicuous in the dejection which usually attends common bilious complaints; and the striking manner in which the secretion of bile is often influenced by affections of the mind.

The inflammatory affections of the chest in dyspeptics are still more apt to spread to the digestive organs than those of the head. It is but rarely indeed that they do not. When a dyspeptic is more or less suddenly attacked with difficulty of breathing, cough and fever, the region of the stomach towards the right side almost always becomes more or less full and tender, and the treatment for inflammation of the lungs or their membranes, then gives only temporary or imperfect relief, if not combined with means directed to the digestive organs.

It is particularly deserving of notice, that general blood-letting, on which we here chiefly rely for relieving the affection of the lungs, usually makes little or no impression on that of these organs; and the continuance of the disease there, both renders the relief of the lungs imperfect, and disposes to a return of

their inflammatory state. In these cases, it is essential to combine with the general blood-letting, abstraction of blood from the tender part, and a strict attention to the medicinal part of the treatment of the second stage of indigestion. I can say, from a very great number of such cases, that by these means their treatment, which is usually tedious even where it is ultimately effectual, is rendered as uniformly manageable, and nearly as expeditious as that of ordinary cases of pulmonary inflammation; and is generally attended with less loss of strength, for the inflammation being of a less active nature, less general blood-letting is required.

Did my limits permit, it would be easy to point out a similar connexion between affections of the digestive organs and a great variety of other diseases.

The variety of symptoms which present themselves in the various deviations from a state of health, is so great, that were they not divided into classes, and arranged under the heads of diseases, it would be almost impossible either to acquire or retain a knowledge of them; but diseases do not always appear, in actual practice, in the distinct forms in which they are set down in the works of systematic writers, who have not in general been sufficiently careful to point out the manner in which they are combined, and the means of cure, influenced by their combinations. More than half the cases we meet with are combinations of diseases rather than simple diseases.

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## ON THE HÆMORRHOIDAL EXCRESCENCE.

### *On the Causes of the Disease.*

The hæmorrhoidal excrescence is commonly a small soft fungous growth, situated at or near the verge of the anus. This disease has sometimes been confounded with the hæmorrhoidal tumour, but the two diseases differ completely in structure, and mode of production; and require very different methods of treatment.

The hæmorrhoidal excrescence has by some writers been referred in every instance to a venereal origin, and it certainly does most frequently spring from this cause; but it occasionally takes place, as I have myself seen, in those who never had a venereal complaint; and Wiseman says he has met with it in an infant.

Persons of a relaxed constitution, who with much exercise perspire freely, may be considered to be in circumstances favouring the production of this complaint, unless extremely attentive to cleanliness. In one instance I have known the acrid fumes of burning sulphur bring on disease of the skin, terminating in this disease.

When this disease is produced from a venereal cause, it appears to be mostly connected with gonorrhœa, and I believe is generally brought on by this alone; from the purulent matter by means of the linen coming in contact with the verge of the anus, which in this way may excite a similar discharge from the mucous membrane lining the sphincter, acquiring a peculiar acrimony, and eventually inducing that unhealthy state of the cutis round the verge of the anus which generates the excrescence. In these cases the disease is on examination found to excrete a foetid ichorous discharge, excessive in quantity, and extremely offensive in quality.

*On the Symptoms and Appearances.*

Hæmorrhoidal excrescences are generally numerous, very rarely single. They usually make their appearance near the margin, or verge of the anus; and generally arise from the inner membrane of the sphincter. Wiseman, to whose extreme diligence and candour the profession are greatly indebted for much practical observation in surgery, relates a case of this kind in which so many excrescences had formed as to render it difficult to find their insertion. Five of the largest exceeded the length of an inch and a half, and were attached by narrow peduncles to the integuments; while some were found springing from the inner membrane of the gut, fairly beyond the sphincter. M. Lieutaud observes, that in examinations after death, they have been found attached to the internal membrane of the rectum, in such number as to have hindered the passage of the contents of the bowels.

Hæmorrhoidal excrescences are either of a bright or a dull red, or lurid colour, of a fungous consistence, easily broken, and readily made to bleed. This is as I have found them, but M. Swediaur observes they are sometimes hard and firm; and they have been described by Mr. B. Bell as occasionally acquiring the consistence of the firmest scirrhus. The last-mentioned gentleman observes, that "these excrescences seem all to be productions of the cuticle;" but, as far as observation and experience have hitherto enabled me to judge, they appear in every instance to originate in disease of the cutis, and not the cuticle.

M. Delpech, who has taken a comprehensive, and in most particulars a very correct view of the present state of surgery, observes upon the hæmorrhoidal tumour, "*ce que l'on designe par le terme commun d'hæmorrhoides, consiste le plus souvent dans une alteration analogue à ce que nous décrierons ailleurs sous le nom de fungus hæmatodes;*" and from the description, as well as treatment recommended, it appears that the tumour



and the excrescence are considered to be only two varieties of one and the same disease; which was precisely the opinion of Ambrose Pare, in 1579.

It is certainly true that both these forms of disease may occur in the same patient, but this circumstance alone is no proof of their identity. The hæmorrhoidal tumour is situated in the cellular membrane beneath the skin; the excrescence in the skin itself, or the mucous membrane continuous with it. The hæmorrhoidal tumour is formed by a deposit of blood, either in dilated veins or cells; the excrescence, on the contrary, is a fungous growth, the vessels of which in no instance enlarge or pour out their blood into cells.

M. Lieutaud, speaking of the hæmorrhoidal excrescence, was aware of the importance of the distinction; for he says, "*Ces tubercles, qu'on doit bien distinguer des hæmorrhoides flétries, occupent les bords de l'anus.*" The truth is, that the disease and the treatment, involve considerations of much higher importance in the one case, than in the other.

The hæmorrhoidal excrescence is occasionally connected with the appearance of cracks or fissures proceeding outwards from the sphincter, in the natural plaits or folds of the skin. These fissures usually attended with an offensive discharge, so exactly resemble the rhagades that occur in venereal disease, that they have very properly been regarded as a decisive mark of venereal taint in the constitution.

#### *On the Treatment.*

The treatment required will be either local or constitutional. As a local disease, hæmorrhoidal excrescence may be readily cured in almost every instance. Where the excrescences are numerous, and mostly small, they may conveniently enough be removed, by snipping them off with a pair of sharp scissors. In some cases the scalpel may be preferred, where the basis is broad, or extensive. Should the excrescence be single, or the patient be averse to the knife, a single ligature may be applied round the base of the part to be removed: or if the base is broad, a double ligature upon a curved needle passed through the centre may be tied on each side.

From the structure of the disease, it is obvious that bleeding can never claim attention, in whatever manner the removal of the excrescence may be effected. Upon the adoption of excision a little lint constantly wetted with some cold lotion may be laid upon the parts for a few days; they will thus be kept cool until the skin heals over. When the ligature is applied, fomentations may be useful should much pain follow the operation.

When the excrescences are connected not only with a discharge, but with cracks and fissures in the skin, the application of some of the various sedative or astringent solutions, containing either acetate of lead, or the sulphates of copper, zinc, or iron, may be directed. Should these fail, alterative medicines may be tried. I have never met with a case where this disease has required the full effect of mercurial excitement in the system for its cure, but it is reasonable to suppose the case may occur, and it will then be necessary to subject the patient to precisely the same means and management adopted for the eradication of any other direct venereal symptom.

#### TREATMENT OF SICK HEADACHE AND HYPOCHONDRIASIS.

In all cases of this kind, whether of original affection of the primæ viæ, or symptomatic of any other affection, little good can be done without unremitting attention to the regularity of evacuation from the bowels, which is essentially necessary to the subduing of acid when habitually formed in the stomach, and towards gaining any ground in the removal of pain, flatulency, and every other dyspeptic symptom, and the means of attempting to affect this regularity in different persons, and in the same person at different times, must be exceedingly varied;—now and then a case occurs with an habitually lax state of the bowels, and only rhubarb is requisite as a purgative, joined with light aromatics, but commonly we have to contend with constipation, when rhubarb by itself does mischief:—when the stomach and bowels are loaded and foul, powerful doses of mercurial purgatives are occasionally necessary, particularly in those whose blood-vessels are full, and whose energies are considerable. When this state of the system is indicated by labouring action of the heart, which is perceived by the patient, or by vertigo, depending upon repletion of the blood-vessels, it is to be relieved by cupping:—and if the secretion of the bile be deficient or irregular, the repetition of a grain of calomel daily or every other day, for some time, will often prove very useful:—but it sometimes happens that the liver is acting well, and that the bile, though duly secreted, is an insufficient stimulus to the bowels, either from its being neutralized or altered by the acid which passes from the stomach to the duodenum, or from the bowels being in a state too inactive to be excited by it:—in such cases the repeated use of calomel, or its being commonly given as a purgative, is injurious; as also in some cases which frequently occur where there is a continued defect of bile, as in chlorotic young women; and in some debi-



litated male patients, who have long laboured under impaired digestion and hypochondriac affection:—here the quantity of aliment assimilated into blood is inadequate to the production of a sufficiency of bile, and the encouragement of its secretion by means of mercury would be only to exhaust the system by increasing the action of one part in augmentation of the debility of the whole;—the proper quantity of bile cannot be properly or permanently in such cases procured, except by increasing the powers of assimilation and the general strength, which being obtained, the torpidity of the bowels is commonly very much overcome; but these powers cannot be improved without the liberation of the stomach from acid matter, which cannot be effected without open bowels: all practical physicians are well aware of the difficulties they have to encounter in the very obstinate state of constipation which is frequently found in such patients, and to point out the medicines to be tried would be to run over the whole class of cathartics in the *materia medica*: hæmorrhoids are very commonly the consequence of those purgatives which are long in their operation, and which consequently particularly stimulate the great intestines; their production is always to be avoided if possible, not only on account of the trouble they always give, and of the severe pain which they sometimes occasion, but on account of the weakness which they induce when they bleed, and of the venous plethora, which occasionally ensues and produces affections of the head and other troublesome symptoms, when much blood is retarded in its proper progress in the reservoir formed by these dilated veins, and they are on any way accidentally pressed upon, as particularly by indurated fæces in the rectum; where any plethora prevails, the fluid purgatives are commonly the best, since plethora assists in producing hæmorrhoids;—infusion of senna with neutral salts, which it is necessary sometimes to quicken with tincture of senna or of jalap, passes off readily and is safe and tolerably easy in its operation, if its dose and the proper repetition of it be ascertained by observation on its effects in producing moderate evacuation in every individual patient, and castor oil, and other oily purgatives, are sometimes proper in this state of bowels: the socotorine aloe is a most useful medicine in cases of loaded bowels, both from the convenience with which it may be taken, and from its almost certain operation on the great intestines:—in chlorosis and some other cases of female health, it is particularly applicable, from the stimulus being conveyed to the uterine system; but women are particularly subject to piles from habitual costiveness, and from the larger capacity of the pelvis, which allows of greater dilatation of every part contained in it, than that of men. When



symptoms of hæmorrhoids or their approach have appeared, and generally where there is any fulness with laxity of fibre, aloes, the certainty with which they assist in producing hæmorrhoidal affections, must not on any account be employed: powder of jalap or scammony are but little more advisable; colocynth, but not with aloes as in the form of *extractum colocynthidis compositum*, and others of the stronger purgatives which may be given in a solid form, and are not of a resinous nature, are sometimes necessary: about a table-spoonful of tincture of senna rendered more grateful to the stomach by the admixture of a little tincture of lavender or of ginger, and taken at bed-time without any admixture of water, will often cause a more easy night's rest, and operate mildly in the morning; this is very useful in preventing the necessity of the too frequent repetition of more bulky or more violent cathartics; on the same principle, clectuary of senna, and the various domestic preparations of that drug and of other mild laxatives have their uses, for it is always to be remembered that violent purging is not the intention to be accomplished, but only permanent regularity of evacuation. The aid of glysters should sometimes be obtained, particularly when there appears to be a large collection of indurated fæces in the colon; this is sometimes evident from hardness in the track of the colon, which may be felt in the umbilical and left iliac regions, and this in itself has sometimes produced strong hypochondriac symptoms, attended with dyspepsia, and spasm in the stomach and in the extremities, and particularly with pain and numbness in the left lower extremity:—here a glyster of colocynth, or of soft soap, gives the greatest relief: but the too frequent use of glysters is exceedingly injurious, they destroy the tone of the great intestines, and in consequence the whole intestinal canal suffers;—this may be proved from the numerous cases of French emigrants, who are habitually costive from the use of glysters, and many of whom suffer from true hypochondriasis.

The different alkaline and earthy matters used in medicine, seem to promise relief in these diseases, but this expectation is seldom in any great degree fulfilled: magnesia commonly does little by itself, and seldom seems of much use when combined with other purgative matter; its preparation with bark, however, is sometimes advantageously employed; as long as costiveness prevails, any of the preparations of calcareous earth are inadmissible, and they commonly bring on feverish heat, and increase the impediments to digestion; sometimes, however, in long continued cases of acidity on the stomach, attended with headache and considerable hypochondriac affection, where the bowels are tolerably free, or under easy controul, much ad-

vantage may sometimes be derived from perseveranee in the use of lime water prepared with oyster shells, as a more pure form of calcareous earth than that which is dug out of a chalk-pit; and from bark prepared with lime water; the addition of natron or aq. kali to bark or other bitters, is sometimes advantageous, particularly if the case be complicated with glandular affection; in the same manner soda water is beneficial from the tonic power of the light carbonic acid it contains; the good effect of ammonia taken into the stomach may depend in some measure on its alkaline nature, but seems principally to be produced by its grateful stimulus both in the form in which it is taken; and after it may have been combined into a neutral ammonical salt by union with any acid it may meet with. Nothing, however, can be more capricious than the stomach in hypochondriacs, and in all these diseases where acidity habitually prevails; it is particularly to be noticed that vitriolic acid with bark or without it, is often essentially useful, and this, where acidity in the stomach is continual; the utility of this acid is certainly in defiance of all chemical reasoning, and may depend upon its astringency, whereby it probably prevents the secretion of acid fluid into the stomach, or of such fluid as is ready to become acid, and in some measure on its power of preventing fermentation. Tonics for the most part are necessary, but it is almost impossible to lay down any form of them to be pursued for any length of time; the stomach is commonly soon disgusted with any individual preparations, and it is often very difficult to suit its variation of aptitude by the most judicious changes of medicine, which however must always be attempted, since there is not any ease of disease which is so frequently aggravated by neglect: what has been said of tonics as well as of purgatives is in a great measure applicable to this state of stomach, always however observation must be made, how far it may be right or wrong to use those forms which tend to influence the hepatic system.

The use of steel is indicated in all cases where there is a deficiency of assimilation of chyle into blood, particularly in such cases of hypochondriac affection as are attended with paleness, and with what is commonly called the phlegmatic temperament; where however much disorder in the stomach prevails with any symptomatic affection of the head, the symptoms are commonly aggravated by steel; and any attempt to exhibit it, which it is sometimes requisite to make, redoubles the necessity of completely obviating costiveness: if any chalybeate water, as that of Tunbridge, or any chemical preparation of steel be employed, it will be necessary to discontinue their use for some time, on the first approach or return of affection of

the head : when the spasm affects the voluntary muscles of the body, the trial of steel is indicated, and its use appears sometimes considerably to contribute to the prevention of the return of dyspeptic symptoms, and of pain in the stomach, as well as to the general tone and strength.

The spasms about the hypochondria very frequently cannot be relieved without opium, and in this case also the solid form of it is the best, as it is applied constantly by gradual solution to the parts immediately affected, and produces much less injury to the stomach and to the system than any fluid preparation of it : but given in any form in hypochondriasis, though it relieve for a short time, it is often followed by increased irritability, and it should not be employed "*nisi dignus vindice nodus.*" Relief from the spasm commonly ensues from the general treatment here laid down ; but where this symptom is very troublesome, the various foetid gums in various combinations, and with the addition of castor, will frequently do much good, without the assistance of opium :—valerian also in various doses and forms is often found useful, and particularly the volatile tincture of that drug :—volatile saline medicines generally ; and in cases of much flatulency, such medicines combined with aromatics and the different preparations of æther, with aromatics and camphor, often have good effect ; when the symptom of vomiting is troublesome, the means are applicable : flatulency is often much relieved by increasing the muscular action of the stomach and intestines ; and mustard, horse-radish, and other such stimuli are useful, either in the forms in which they are served at table, or the mustard-seed may be taken whole, or the officinal and other preparations of horse-radish may be employed. In cases of sick headache opium must, as much as possible, be avoided ; to increase the power of the stomach and regulate the bowels are here the principal objects.

#### *External Remedies.*

With regard to external remedies, blisters and other applications soliciting a discharge are commonly very unnecessary torments, and are very seldom justly applicable. Frictions on the hypochondria with volatile liniments often give very considerable relief ; and plasters with warm gums are sometimes useful ; the warm foot bath in some cases may be usefully employed, and bathing in warm sea water or at Buxton :—in the progress of convalescence, bathing in the sea and cold bathing may often be advantageously employed.

The observation on sea bathing in general wasting, apply however to this case of disease ; and it is generally to be observed,



that old people for the most part do not bear cold or sea bathing well:—to them, and in cases of long continued fastidious appetite in hypochondriasis, drinking Bath water, under proper restriction, is more salutary and more grateful.

The state of the secretions in hypochondriasis has been sufficiently considered; upon this subject connected with those of air, exercise, diet, sleep, and the passions, many volumes have been written and applied to this state of health:—and it would be easy to add another volume; indeed it is much more difficult to compress what may be said on hypochondriasis, than to avoid every attempt to refute what has been improperly urged respecting this complaint.

The air of large cities is indisputably injurious \* to almost all debilitated invalids, and for hypochondriasis a pure air is very useful; at the same time seclusion is baneful to them; the good effects of a purer atmosphere will be more than counter-balanced, if an hypochondriac shuts himself up constantly by his fire in his country study, or retires from society in indolence and apprehension: cold piercing winds are very severely felt by most hypochondriacs, and must be avoided when they prove injurious; at the same time the propriety of their accustoming themselves to bear the open air as much as circumstances will allow, must ever be impressed upon them; and proper warmth of clothing, particularly about the feet, must be worn.

#### *Exercise Necessary.*

Exercise, short of fatigue, is very essential; and even a little fatigue must be endured by those who from long sedentary occupation have lost the habit of exertion; riding on horseback, or in a carriage, sailing, rowing, are all useful; also moderate walking, bowling, or working with a spade in the garden, and other exercise out of doors attended with some labour: it is to be observed however of sick headache, that its attacks are frequently induced by the motion of a carriage, boat or ship, and that exercise on foot or horseback is best for such invalids: frictions with a flannel or flesh brush, about the hypochondria, and generally over the body, are very useful in all dyspeptic cases, and especially where the debility of the patient prevents much muscular exertion by volition. The use of the dumb-bell, and other exercise within doors, must be recommended according to circumstances; and the giving up half an hour or an hour every day to the performance of the military exercise, in an airy place with a few comrades, will often prove to have been a most useful employment of time.

\* See No. 47. Art. "Comparison of a Town and Country Residence."

*No Plan of Diet Invariably Beneficial.*

He who lays down a plan of diet for any hypochondriac, from the same having proved exceedingly useful in a similar case, will commonly find himself wrong; the patient is to be nourished with whatever aliment he can digest; and the same uniform reservation as to spices is by no means necessary, provided that they seem to improve, rather than to injure, digestion; his appetite for a moderate quantity of almost any variety of food is to be indulged, provided that no derangement of the stomach ensue from it, and the *juvantia* and *lædientia* are to be made out from observation in each case; vinegar and native vegetable acid commonly are prejudicial, yet very commonly ripe fruit is beneficial; commonly every thing that is oily or empyreumatic must be avoided: mustard, horse-radish and the like, as has been said, are often useful in the prevention of flatulency; sometimes in long cases of hypochondriasis, where vomiting has long been a tiresome symptom, the yolks of eggs boiled hard have been digested, and the vomiting in a short space of time has ceased; in these cases it is probable that the stomach is in an habitual state of contraction, as it has been sometimes actually found on dissection, and mustard or horse-radish, by increasing its muscular action, would have been injurious, whilst any easily digestible substance nearly solid from not occupying much space would be retained, and gradually distend the stomach; or, from causing the muscular effort produced in vomiting to cease, give opportunity to the stomach to recover its natural dimensions; eggs, however, prepared in any way that has been contrived, will not always agree, even when this state of stomach is to be suspected; but will be almost immediately rejected or produce much disturbance, when a small quantity of gelatinous or mucilaginous food, or even of light meat will be digested; it seems far from reasonable that in all cases light suppers should be prohibited, since it is well known from experiment, that digestion and absorption of chyle go on more perfectly during sleep than at any other time, and it is the best practice in hypochondriasis and all complaints of digestion, to allow frequent but sparing meals: the proper hour of taking the last meal in the day must depend very much on the sensations of the patient consequent upon it; and it is obvious, if supper be allowed, and tea or coffee also be taken in the afternoon, that the time of dining ought to be more in the middle of the day than is usually practised, so that one meal should not follow another too quickly.

*Best Kind of Drink.*

As to the article of drink, it seldom happens that any malt liquor can be allowed; soda water with a little good wine, commonly forms a most excellent beverage:—it is rarely proper to require any large quantity of diluting drink to be taken:—coffee generally agrees better than tea; and sometimes cocoa, or even chocolate, if its oily quality do not offend the stomach, is very proper for breakfast, or in the forenoon.

It is very rarely right to give opium with the view of inducing sleep in these complaints:—much is to be accomplished by regular hours of rising and going to bed; and by avoiding sleep when out of bed, which not only interferes with the regular habit of sleep to be acquired, but is very commonly followed by some increased symptom of irritation. The operation of a mild purgative commencing at bed-time, as has been stated, sometimes induces quiet sleep: sometimes the compositions of the fœtid gums also are useful and cause rest, without the increase of irritability, which is brought on by opium:—the tepid foot-bath and some other means, that have been mentioned for different purposes, likewise assist in producing sleep: when restlessness depends upon palpitation from repletion of the blood-vessels, cupping, and sometimes general bleeding, as well as purging, will be requisite to procure quiet and easy sleep.

The mind in hypochondriasis cannot be properly regulated without the best efforts of the patient himself, but he will for the most part be induced to use them, on the representation of a medical man of intelligence and good humour, that it is impossible for him to accomplish any plan he has in view, and that he must always be a burthen to himself and his connexions, till he makes the search after cheerfulness and health his primary pursuit; he must make himself alive to the scene which passes before him, and his family may commonly be instructed in some methods of diverting his attention from dismal reflections on himself, and from unremitting application to any favourite topic, and gently to remind him of the harm he is about to do himself, when he seems ready to give way to any excess of passion: his resort to public places will be beneficial, when he can be brought to attend to what is going forward there, and by such attentions his pursuit of health will daily become less irksome and laborious; and by the same means he must be brought to unbend his mind in the society of his equals, and to attend to the proper times of exercise, food, and rest.



### THE BENEFICIAL EFFECTS OF TRAVELLING AS AN EXERCISE ON HEALTH.

Although we have formerly pointed out at length the advantages to be derived from exercise by invalids, in our articles on training, both as respects the body and mind, and though the following is but a new version of those suggestions, promulgated by us nearly three years ago, yet the application being somewhat different, and probably more consonant to the ideas of some of our readers, we give a sketch of a plan by Dr. Johnson, who personally derived great advantage from pursuing the method which he recommends strongly to others.

The first beneficial influence of travelling is perceptible in the state of our corporeal feelings. If they were previously in a state of morbid acuteness, as they generally are in ill health, they are rendered less sensible. The eye which was before annoyed by a strong light, soon becomes capable of bearing it without inconvenience; and so of hearing, and the other senses. In short, morbid sensibility of the nervous system generally is obtunded, or reduced. This is brought about by more regular and free exposure to all atmospheric impressions and changes than before, and that under a condition of body, from exercise, which renders these impressions innoxious. Of this we see the most striking examples in those who travel among the Alps. Delicate females and sensitive invalids, who at home were highly susceptible of every change of temperature and other states of the atmosphere, will undergo extreme vicissitudes among the mountains, without the smallest inconvenience. I will offer an example or two in illustration. In the month of August 1823, the heat was excessive at Geneva and all the way among the defiles of the mountains, till we got to Chamouni, where we were all at once among ice and snow, with a fall of forty or more degrees of the thermometer, experienced in the course of a few hours, from mid-day at Salenche to the evening at the foot of the Glaciers in Chamouni. There were upwards of fifty travellers here, many of whom were females and invalids; yet none suffered any inconvenience from this rapid transition. This was still more remarkable in the journey from Martigny to the Great St. Bernard. On our way up, through the deep vallies, we had the thermometer at ninety-two degrees for three hours. I never felt it hotter in the East Indies. At nine o'clock that night, while wandering about the Hospice of the St. Bernard, the thermometer fell to six degrees below the freezing point, and we were all nearly frozen in the cheerless apartments of the

monastery. There were upwards of forty travellers there, some of them in very delicate health, and yet not a single cold was caught, nor any diminution of the usual symptom of a good appetite for breakfast next morning. This was like a change from Calcutta to Melville Island in one short day! So much for the ability to bear heat and cold by journeying among the Alps. Let us see how hygrometrical and barometrical changes are borne.

A very large concourse of travellers started at day-break from the village of Chamouni to ascend the Montanvert and Merc de Glace. The morning was beautiful; but before we got two-thirds up the Montanvert, a tremendous storm of wind and rain came on us without a quarter of an hour's notice, and we were drenched to the skin in a very few minutes. Some of the party certainly turned tail, and one hypochondriac nearly threw me over a precipice, while rushing past me in his precipitate retreat to the village. The majority, however, persevered, and reached the Chalet, dripping wet, with the thermometer below the freezing point. There was no possibility of warming or drying ourselves here, and therefore many of us proceeded on to the Merc de Glace, and then wandered on the ice till our clothes were dried by the natural heat of our bodies. The next morning's muster for the passage over the Col de Balme shewed no damage from the Montanvert expedition. Even the hypochondriac above-mentioned regained his courage over a bottle of Champaign in the evening at the comfortable "Union," and mounted his mule next morning to cross the Col de Balme. This day's journey shewed, in a most striking manner, the acquisition of strength which travelling confers on the invalid. The ascent to the summit of this mountain is extremely fatiguing, but the labour is compensated by one of the sublimest views from its highest ridge, which the eye of man ever beheld. The descent, on the Martigny side, was the hardest day's labour I ever endured in my life—yet there were three or four invalids with us, whose lives were scarcely worth a year's purchase when they left England, and who went through this laborious, and somewhat hazardous descent, sliding, tumbling, and rolling over rocks and through mud, without the slightest ultimate injury. When we got to the goat-herds' sheds in the valley below, the heat was tropical, and we all threw ourselves on the ground and slept soundly for two hours—rising refreshed to pursue our journey.

Now these and many other facts which I could adduce, offer incontestible proof, how much the morbid susceptibility to transitions from heat to cold—from drought to drenchings—is reduced by travelling. The vicissitudes and exertions which I



have described would lay up half the effeminate invalids of London, and kill, or almost frighten to death, many of those who cannot expose themselves to a breath of cold or damp air, without coughs or rheumatisms in this country. These facts may suggest some important indications to the physician who has charge of patients labouring under, or threatened with, certain affections of the chest. I am strongly inclined to believe that many cases of incipient phthisis might be cured of the disposition to that terrible disease, by timely and cautious removal of morbid susceptibility to atmospheric impressions, by means of travelling in proper seasons, in proper countries, and in a proper manner.

A young medical gentleman from Paris was one of the party to the Montanvert, over the Col de Balme, and afterwards to the Great St. Bernard. He had strongly marked characters of incipient phthisis, and was travelling for his health. His breath was so short in ascending the mountains, and he coughed so violently, that I fully expected he would burst a blood-vessel in the lungs by his exertions. I had some difficulty in persuading him to mount my mule, of which I made no use, in getting up the Col de Balme, and I had much conversation with him during our peregrinations together. He informed me that he had had hæmoptysis several times in France; but that he had got much better and stronger since he had travelled in Switzerland. He had entirely lost all feverishness lately, and only experienced shortness of breath and cough on going up steep ascents. He had never caught cold from the time he set out on his journey, and felt no alarm at exposure to atmospheric vicissitudes in his perambulations among the mountains. I fell in with him nearly a month after this, in a more northern direction, and he was greatly improved in appearance. Several other travellers, with whom I had conversations, informed me they had entirely lost habitual coughs and great susceptibility to cold, while travelling in Switzerland. These things do not harmonize with the doctrines of the schools, but facts are facts, and I leave them to the consideration of my professional brethren.

*Effects of Travelling on the Organs of Digestion.*

The next effect of travelling which I shall notice, is its influence on the organs of digestion. This is so decided and obvious, that I shall not dwell long on the subject. The appetite is not only increased, but the powers of digestion and assimilation are greatly augmented. A man may eat and drink things while travelling, which would make him quite ill previously. A strong proof of its effects on assimilation is afforded by the universal remark, that although much more food is taken in while



travelling, much less fæcal remains are discharged, and costiveness is a very general symptom among those who make long and repeated journeys, especially in a carriage or on horseback. The motions which were previously of bad colour and consistence, soon become formed or even solid, and of a perfectly healthy appearance. The constipation, which attends passive or mixed exercise, on these occasions, is hardly ever attended with any inconvenience; and travellers will go two or three days without a motion, and experience no uncomfortable sensation, although the same degree of confinement of the bowels, at other times, would render them ill, or at least very uncomfortable.

These unequivocally good effects of travelling on the digestive organs account satisfactorily for the various other beneficial influences on the constitution at large. Hence dyspepsia, and the thousand wretched sensations and nervous affections thereon dependent, vanish before persevering exercise in travelling, and new life is imparted to the whole system, mental and corporeal. In short, I am quite positive that the most inveterate dyspepsia (where no organic disease has taken place) would be completely removed, with all its multiform sympathetic torments, by a journey of two thousand miles through Switzerland and Germany, conducted on the principle of combining active with passive exercise in the open air, in such proportions as would suit the individual constitution and the previous habits of life. This, it is true, is the rich man's remedy. But what is the expenditure of time and money, necessary for its accomplishment, compared with the inestimable blessing of restored health? How many thousand opulent invalids saunter away their time and their wealth, at watering-places in this country, during the Summer and Autumn, with little or no improvement of constitution, when a three months' course of constant exercise in the open air, would cure them of all their maladies! The fact is, the power of this remedy is little known; and the manner in which it is applied by many invalids, is not calculated to shew its worth.

*Its Effect on the Absorbents.*

The kind of exercise under consideration has a marked influence on the absorbent system. It excites this class of vessels into great activity. The fluids, even from the bowels, are rapidly taken up into the circulation, and thrown off by the skin, which is one cause of the constipation to which travellers are subject. This increase of activity in the function of the skin, exerts a very salutary influence on the functions of various internal organs, with which the surface is sympathetically associated. The

secretion of bile is thus greatly improved, and this is of no mean consequence in many complaints. To the tropical invalid, with torpid liver and torpid skin, this remedy presents the highest advantages; and I hope the present remarks will induce him not to neglect such an agreeable and useful remedy.

The effects of travelling on the absorbents, point at once to the benefits which may be derived from it, in cases where there is a dropsical tendency. In one gentleman whom I knew on this tour, there had been œdematous state of the lower extremities for many years, but whose legs became as small as ever they had been, in the course of one month's travelling. This activity of the absorbents causes the fat and flabby parts of the body to be rapidly reduced, while the exercise and the improved digestion increase the force and firmness of the muscular system. Hence corpulent people become thinner on the journey, but their muscles are increased in size; and what they lose in weight they gain in strength. This salutary change of proportion between the muscular and the adipose systems of the body gives greater freedom to the functions of many important organs, especially to the heart and the lungs. Hence people who are easily put out of breath by exercise, or by going up an ascent, soon acquire power to do both, without inconvenience.

The increased activity of the absorbents, during the combination of active and passive exercise in travelling, offers a powerful agency for the removal of morbid growths in the body, such as tumours, scrofulous swellings, &c., and this is one reason why I think great advantage might be derived from travelling, in cases where there is a tendency to consumption—a disposition so much connected with scrofulous affection both internally and externally.

#### *Its Effects on the Circulation of the Blood.*

The effects of travelling on the circulation are peculiar. Active exercise unquestionably quickens the pulse—while passive exercise in a carriage renders it slower. In those diseases of the heart, therefore, where there is enlargement of the organ, with increase of force in the circulation, I think there can be little doubt that travelling, with combined active and passive exercise, would be dangerous, and would be likely to augment the disease. In such cases, the exercise should be completely passive, and then the effects would be beneficial. But there are many cases where there is a morbid irritability of the heart, from sympathy with other organs, as the stomach, liver, &c. In these, travelling offers a powerfully salutary remedy, not only by lessening the irritability of the heart, but by improving the functions of those organs with which the heart sympathizes.



The travelling exercise, in these cases, should be at first entirely passive, and, as the irritability of the organ decreases, active exercise might be gradually ventured on, and progressively augmented. The exercise of travelling, whether active, passive, or both combined, has a very marked influence in producing an equal distribution of the blood to all parts of the body. This important effect must render it a powerful agent in correcting undue determinations of blood to any particular organ or part—a phenomenon, which plays a conspicuous part in many of the most dangerous diseases to which the human fabric is liable. Hence the utility of travelling, in many affections of the head and other parts to which an unequal distribution of blood may be habitually directed.

There is but one other effect of travelling to which I shall allude, before I close this essay, but I think it is a very important one—if not the most important of all. It is the influence which *constant change of air* exerts on the blood itself. Every one knows the benefits which are derived from change of air, in many diseases, when that change is only from one part to another, a few miles separated. Nay, it is proved, beyond all possibility of doubt, that the change from what is considered a good, to what is thought a bad air, is often attended with marked good effects. Hence it is very reasonable to conclude, that the *mere change* of one kind of air for another has an exhilarating or salutary effect on the animal economy. It is true, that we have no instruments to ascertain in what consists this difference of one air from another, since the composition of the atmosphere appears to be nearly the same on all points of earth and sea. But we know from observation that there are great differences in air, as far as its effects on the human body are concerned. Hence, it would appear that the human body, confined to one particular air, be it ever so pure, languishes at length, and is bettered by a change. This idea is supported by analogy.

The stomach, if confined to one species of food, however wholesome, will, in time, languish, and fail to derive that nutriment from it, which it would do, if the species of food were occasionally changed. The ruddy complexion then of travellers, and of those who are constantly moving from place to place, as stage-coachmen, does not, I think, solely depend on the mere action of the open air on the face; but also on the influence which change of air exerts on the blood itself in the lungs. I conceive, then, that what Boerhaave says of exercise, may be safely applied to change of air. “*Eo magis et densam, et purpuream sanguinem esse, quò validius homo se exer-*



cuerit motu musculorum.” It is to this constant change of air, as well as to the constant exercise of the muscles, that I attribute the superiority of the plan of travelling which I have proposed, over that which is usually adopted—where HEALTH is the entire object. On this account, I would recommend some of my *fair* country-women, who have leisure as well as means, to improve the languid state of their circulation, and the delicacy of their complexions, by a system of exercise in the open air, which will give colour to their cheeks, firmness to their muscles, tone to their nerves, and energy to their minds.

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#### ON THE MEDICINAL PROPERTIES OF THE CHELTENHAM WATER.

The chalybeate saline spring to which Cheltenham owes its celebrity, issues slowly and in a scanty stream, from a bed of sand, intermixed with blue clay. The well is sunk about six feet deep, and excluded from communication with the external air. The sides are covered with a yellow ochre, indicating the nature of the water. The supply of this chalybeate is calculated to be only about thirty-five pints in an hour, a quantity sufficient to answer the demand in the height of the season, but requires frugal management.

The Cheltenham water when fresh drawn appears tolerably clear, but not perfectly transparent. It becomes more turbid by standing, and separates air bubbles in a small quantity. It gives out a slight but very distinguishable sulphureous odour, which is more perceptible on the approach of rain. To the taste it shews no briskness or pungency, but is brackish, rather bitter, and chalybeate. The temperature is constantly from  $53^{\circ}$  to  $55^{\circ}$ . With different re-agents it shews the following appearances:—

Lime water produces a turbidness when added to the fresh water; and the sulphuric and nitric acids disengage a few air bubbles.

Syrup of violets is rendered green. Tincture of galls instantly strikes a lively purple, which grows darker by standing, but this property is lost if the water be previously exposed for half an hour to the air, and it becomes thereby very turbid. Nitrated silver occasions an immediate precipitation of white clouds, which soon become dark coloured. Acetated lead produces the same effect. Soap is immediately curdled by this water.

When boiled in close vessels, a considerable quantity of air is extricated, which, when examined, proves to be in a large proportion, carbonic acid. A pint of the water yielded to Dr. Fothergill about three ounce measures of gas, of which two

thirds were absorbed by lime water, rendering it turbid, and therefore was carbonic acid, and the remainder was common air, or else azotic gas, united with a minute portion of sulphurated hydrogen.

During evaporation this water at first throws up an earthy scum, which effervesces with acids, and is therefore carbonated lime; and deposits its oxyd of iron. At the conclusion of the process, a large quantity of a crystallizable salt is procured, which is a mixture of vitriolated soda, vitriolated magnesia, and common salt, and several uncrystallized or deliquescent salts are also obtained.

A gallon of Cheltenham water, according to Dr. Fothergill's analysis, will contain

Of a crystallized salt, composed of sulphated soda and	grs.
sulphated magnesia. ....	480
— muriated soda. ....	5
— muriated and carbonated magnesia. ....	25
— selenite. ....	40
— oxyd of iron, nearly. ....	5

---

555

Together with	cubic ins.
Of carbonic acid. ....	30. 368
— an air, chiefly azot mixed with some hepatic. ....	15. 184

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45. 552

Total, one ounce seventy-five grains for the solid contents; along with a pint and a half in bulk of aeriform.

A general survey of the component parts of this water will shew that it is one which possesses several of the most active of those ingredients which give medical properties to particular waters. It is in the first place decidedly saline, and contains much more salt than most of the waters which we have hitherto mentioned, that of the sea excepted. By far the greater part of the salts are of a purgative kind, and therefore an action on the bowels is a constant effect, produced by this medicinal spring, notwithstanding the considerable quantity of selenite and earthy carbonates which may be supposed to have a contrary tendency. Cheltenham water is besides a chalybeate, and if the analysis before us be at all accurate, it is one of the strongest that we are acquainted with. The iron is suspended entirely by the carbonic acid, of which gas the water contains about an eighth of its bulk, but from the abundance of earthy carbonates and oxyd of iron not much of it is uncombined. It therefore does not give indications of being very brisk, though more so than common spring

water. It has besides a slight impregnation of sulphur, but so little as to be scarcely appreciable, except by very delicate chemical tests.

Cheltenham water will not keep well, nor bear transporting to any distance, without being materially altered; for the chalybeate part is soon lost by the precipitation of the iron which takes place even in the closest vessels, after a few days. The salts however remain. If kept open to the air, this water both loses its chalybeate principle, and sometimes becomes fetid.

In order to reduce some of the valuable parts of this water to a more convenient form for carriage and for keeping, the purgative salts are procured on the spot by evaporation and by crystallizing the residuum, and sold under the name of the *Cheltenham salts*. It is, in fact, nothing more than a mixture of vitriolated soda and vitriolated magnesia, but the proportion of each is not ascertained, nor is it of any great importance in a medical point of view, since the effect of each is so nearly the same. These salts are much used on the spot, added to the fresh waters to increase its operation on the bowels.

#### *Salutary Effects of the Water.*

The sensible effects produced by this water are generally, on first taking it, a degree of drowsiness and sometimes headache, but which soon go off spontaneously, even previous to the operation on the bowels. A moderate dose acts powerfully and speedily as a cathartic; but in common with many other of the largely diluted saline waters, it acts in a very gentle manner, without occasioning griping, or leaving that faintness and languor which often follow the action of the rougher cathartics. It is principally on this account, but partly too from the salutary operation of the chalybeate, and perhaps the carbonic acid, that the Cheltenham water may be in most cases persevered in for a considerable length of time uninterruptedly, without producing any inconvenience to the body; and during its use the appetite will be improved, the digestive organs strengthened, and the whole constitution invigorated. I have said that these good effects are principally to be ascribed to the nature and degree of dilution of the purgative salts, since we find the same advantage to attend the use of sea water, or those which I have termed the *simple saline*; but it cannot be doubted that the other active ingredients of the Cheltenham water add very materially to its value, and enable it more particularly to combine a variety of salutary operations. A dose of this water, too small to operate directly on the bowels, will generally determine pretty powerfully to the kidneys, and thus the secretion of urine may be in some



measure commanded, though less perfectly than the action of the intestinal canal.

Cheltenham water is used with considerable benefit in a number of diseases, especially of the chronic kind, and many of them highly difficult of cure. From what has been said of the medicinal powers of the saline waters, and of the chalybeates separately, some idea may be formed of the method in which such a mixture of these principles, as is found in this water, may be supposed to operate, and of the cases to which it is peculiarly applicable.

This medicinal spring has been found of essential service in the cure of glandular obstructions, and especially those that affect the liver, and the other organs connected with the functions of the alimentary canal. Persons who have injured their biliary organs by a long residence in hot climates, and who are suffering under the symptoms either of excess or deficiency of bile, and an irregularity in its secretion, receive remarkable benefit from a course of this water, judiciously exhibited. Its use may be here continued even during a considerable degree of debility, and from the great determination to the bowels, it may be employed with advantage to check the incipient symptoms of dropsy and general anasarca, which so often proceed from an obstruction in the liver. All the effects which mineral waters can produce in such diseases may probably be commanded by the two springs of Cheltenham and Bath; but as the operation of these two differs very essentially, some judgment must be exercised in each individual case, to determine in what manner the use of each must be regulated. Often too it is necessary to employ the warm bath externally, during the course of Cheltenham water, and this town is very well accommodated in this respect with artificial baths of any temperature.

Among other chronic disorders that are much relieved by the Cheltenham spring, we must enumerate a variety of scrofulous affections in different parts; but as these often require the assistance of external application, the sea has certainly here a very decided preference.

#### *Its Advantages in Scorbutic Eruptions.*

Another class of diseases in which the advantage of Cheltenham water is constantly experienced, is in some of the most distressing and painful affections of the skin, of the kind usually termed scorbutic eruptions; that arise often without any very obvious cause, that chiefly depend on the habit of body, and make their appearance at stated intervals in painful ulcerations on the skin, producing a copious acrid discharge of lymph, and

an abundant desquamation. In common with other saline purgative springs, this is found to bring relief in these most harassing disorders, but it requires to be persevered in for a considerable time, keeping up a constant determination to the bowels.

Whilst the chalybeate ingredient of this water probably assists considerably in enabling the constitution to bear without debility a greater degree and a longer course of evacuation than with most other medicines of this kind, it seems however probable that this circumstance will alter, and somewhat impair the benefit which would arise from the iron alone; so that the Cheltenham water cannot be used in every case where a simple chalybeate water is indicated. There are some constitutions which are naturally languid or debilitated by disease, but which do not shew any marks of obstruction, or those symptoms that have been attributed to acrimony in the fluids; and these cannot bear with impunity any constantly increased operation on the bowels. This shews, therefore, the necessity of some caution and judgment in the use of this spring. It is likewise often a question of some moment, whether the patient should use the water so as daily to increase in a small degree the natural evacuation of the bowels; or whether he should drink it only at intervals, and in larger doses, so as to be briskly purged. These are circumstances which are not always sufficiently attended to by the greater number of invalids, and would require the judgment of a professional man on the spot.

It is an advantage attending these saline waters, that they may be used at once, without any preparation; nor is any other medicine often required during their use, except, as has been already mentioned, the occasional addition of the crystallized salts, where the water itself does not prove sufficiently active to the bowels; and likewise the use of the warm bath in several of the cases, and more especially the diseases of the skin.

The season for drinking the Cheltenham water is during the whole of the Summer months, and in such a course of medicine the circumstance of season is probably of some consequence. The water should, if possible, be always drank at the fountain head, and never kept long exposed to the air. It might, however, be cautiously warmed in close vessels, when its coldness would prove offensive to the stomach of the patient. The dose must vary considerably, both from the great difference of the action of purgatives in different habits, and from the intention with which the water is given. In general, most advantage is obtained by taking a full purgative dose at once, so that the stools may be quickly procured; therefore in such cases as the dose of one pint will not prove purgative, some of the neutral



salts should be added to it; for the repetition of the diluted dose during the day time, at distant periods, will not always produce stools, and very frequently brings on nausea and loss of appetite.

*Discovery of a New Spring.*

The following is an account, by Dr. Jamieson, of a new spring lately discovered, and nearly of the same nature with that of the Old Spa:—

“This spring is situated on an elevated airy spot, in the waste lands, about three hundred yards distant from the Old Spa, and in a soil consisting of hard blue clay, replete with shelly pirites and crystals of selenite salts; the well is forty feet deep, and the water rises to twenty feet, its greatest height. In consequence of the depth of the well, and the great body of water it always contains, it is uniform in its properties, and beautifully transparent; the temperature is from  $53^{\circ}$  to  $58^{\circ}$  in the warmest season, and two degrees colder than the other Spas. The water, fresh from the pump, sparkles a little, and tastes saltish, like weak sea water, imparting to the palate the disagreeable flavour of the hepatic gas, instead of the bitter taste. The carbonic acid gas is not in great proportion, but can easily be detected by lime water. The hepatic gas is readily discovered by invisible words, written with a solution of mercury in nitrous acid, becoming legible when dipped in the water; they turn immediately yellow, and afterwards blackish; but the vapour of the water does not produce the same effect; the impregnation of iron seems small in quantity; tincture of galls, and prussiate of potash, do not change the colour of the water until a few drops of nitrous acid have been added, it then becomes of a purple colour. The saline matter of the water consists in a greater proportion of the muriate of soda to the other neutral salts, than is contained in the water of the other Spas, which, with its sulphureous gas, makes it approximate to the nature of Harrogate water. The muriate of soda seems to be contained in the water, in a tolerable pure state, without the usual bitter, and may impart to it some peculiar medical properties.”

Upon evaporating a gallon of it which was sent from Cheltenham, the gross contents of the residuary matter was found to be about one ounce and thirty grains. Upon examining it, it was found to consist chiefly of muriate of soda, sulphate of magnesia, and sulphate of soda. The hepatic gas was soon dissipated by boiling, and from every chemical test that was employed, the same effects were produced as in the Old Spa; it may therefore be safely admitted that its medical powers are the same.



Dr. Jamieson adds, “during a short residence at Cheltenham in the Summer of 1802, I was consulted by many invalids, and had an opportunity of conversing with others, who were under the use of the purgative saline waters of that place. I soon perceived that they were very indiscriminately used in a variety of opposite diseases; and that their effects were such as might have been expected from so injudicious an application of their medical powers. The cases in which they appear to be useful are evidently connected with a turgescence and congestion of the hepatic system in full and oppressed habits, where the secretion of bile is inconsiderable, and where the habit is costive. They are of more use in sanguineous constitutions than in pallid and chlorotic habits. In diseases of simple dyspepsia, with flatulency and acidity, and in cases of scirrhus liver, I have not perceived any useful operation from them. They are chiefly useful when their purgative operation is such as to relieve from a sense of distention immediately consequent on their being taken into the stomach; they lose their effect by daily repetition, and ought frequently to be alternated with other purgatives, or aided in their operation by other means.

“In very delicate exsanguine chlorotic habits, I found the purgative plan universally improper; and in such cases recommended a chalybeate spring lately discovered at Cheltenham, from which the greatest advantage was derived. I met with many persons who had returned from the East and West Indies, with very torpid bowels, and diminished secretion of bile. In such cases the purgative water was useful, and may be proper as preparatory to the future use of a more tonic plan of treatment. The daily exercise and general habits of temperance, practised at Cheltenham, contribute not a little to promote the recovery of such invalids.

“In irritable and feverish habits, with thirst and general languor, evidently arising from some local and visceral affection, the waters of Cheltenham are less calculated to do good. In cases of jaundice from some resistance to a free discharge of bile, and a sense of heat, distention and fulness, increased soon after eating, the Cheltenham water is useful. In cases of jaundice from gall-stones also, it is useful, but should be drunk warm.

“In calculating the number of persons, and the variety of disorders among the invalids at Cheltenham, I think I may fairly conclude that one third of the whole was benefited, one third derived no advantage, and another third was evidently hurt by persevering in the purging plan. Among the last cases, symptoms of languor, flatulency, thirst, and debilitated digestion were induced or much increased. How far the newly discovered chaly-

beate water may be employed to lessen or remove these inconveniences, and under what circumstances it may be safely and beneficially had recourse to for that purpose, is a subject which has already occupied a good deal of my attention ; but it is one of too much extent, and requiring too minute a reference to individual cases, to be attempted here."

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DR. RUSH ON THE DANGER OF DRINKING COLD WATER  
IN HOT WEATHER.

Few Summers elapse in which there are not instances of many persons being affected by drinking cold water. In some seasons four or five persons have died suddenly from this cause in one day. This mortality falls chiefly upon the labouring part of the community, who seek to allay their thirst by drinking the water from the pumps in the streets, and who are too impatient, or too ignorant, to use the necessary precautions for preventing its deadly effects upon them.

Three circumstances generally concur to produce disease or death from drinking cold water. 1. The patient is extremely warm. 2. The water is extremely cold. And 3. A large quantity of it is suddenly taken into the body. The danger from drinking the cold water is always in proportion to the degrees of combination which occur in the three circumstances that have been mentioned.

*Symptoms.*

The following symptoms generally follow where cold water has been taken, under the above circumstances, into the body. In a few minutes after the patient has swallowed the water, he is affected by dimness of sight, he staggers in attempting to walk, and unless supported falls to the ground ; he breathes with difficulty ; a rattling is heard in his throat ; his nostrils and cheeks expand and contract in every act of respiration ; his face appears suffused with blood, and of a livid colour ; his extremities become cold, and his pulse imperceptible ; and unless relief is speedily obtained, the disorder terminates in death in four or five minutes.

This description includes only the less common cases of the effects of drinking a large quantity of cold water, when the body is preternaturally heated. More frequently, patients are seized with acute spasms in the breast and stomach. These spasms are so painful as to produce fainting and even swooning. They are sometimes of the tonic, but more frequently of the convulsive kind. In the intervals of the spasms the patient appears to be perfectly well. The intervals between each spasm become



longer or shorter, according as the disease tends to life or death. It may not be improper to take notice, that punch, beer, and even toddy, when drank under the same circumstances as cold water, have all been known to produce the same morbid and fatal effects.

### *Treatment.*

We know of but one certain remedy for this disease, and that is liquid laudanum. The doses of it, as in other cases of spasm, should be proportioned to the violence of the disease. From a tea-spoonful to near a table-spoonful have been given in some instances, before relief has been obtained. Where the powers of life appear to be suddenly suspended, the same remedies should be used, which have been so successfully employed in recovering persons supposed to be dead from drowning.

Care should be taken in every case of disease, or apparent death, from drinking cold water, to prevent the patients suffering from being surrounded, or even attended by too many people.

Persons who have been recovered from the immediate danger which attends this disease, are sometimes affected after it by inflammations and obstructions in the breast or liver. These generally yield to the usual remedies which are administered in those complaints, when they arise from other causes.

If neither the voice of reason, nor the fatal examples of those who have perished from this cause, are sufficient to produce restraint in drinking a large quantity of cold liquors, when the body is preternaturally heated, then let us advise to

1. Grasp the vessel out of which you are about to drink for a minute or longer with both your hands. This will abstract a portion of heat from the body, and impart it at the same time to the cold liquor, provided the vessel is made of metal, glass, or earth; for heat follows the same laws, in many instances, in passing through bodies, with regard to its relative velocity, which we observe to take place in electricity.

2. If you are not furnished with a cup, and are obliged to drink by bringing your mouth in contact with the stream which issues from a pump, or a spring, always wash your hands and face previously to your drinking; with a little of the cold water. By receiving the shock of the water first upon those parts of the body, a portion of its heat is conveyed away, and the vital parts are thereby defended from the action of the cold.

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### RUSSIAN METHOD OF CURING DEAFNESS.

This remedy is simple and well worthy a trial by those who



are labouring under a defect of that most essential sense, the hearing. The Russian Ambassador, Count Orloff, first recommended it in this country, and it has been used with success in many cases. The experiment may be made by filling the mouth with the smoke of the strongest tobacco, which is to be instantly closed as well as the nose, and an effort made to force the smoke through the nose, which being stopped, the smoke will be forced through the eustachian tube into the ear. The effort must be repeated, but not too violently, when one or both ears will give a crack, and the hearing will be restored. As this method, however, may be dangerous to persons of a full habit, and who have a tendency of blood to the head, it will be a safer plan to get a friend to force the smoke of the tobacco into the ear by means of a common tobacco pipe. The ear should be first stopped with cotton wool, leaving just sufficient room to insert the small end of the pipe, the wool will prevent the return of the smoke; the operator must then apply his mouth to the bowl of the pipe, and force as much smoke into the ear as possible. After the application has continued some time, the patient may lay down, taking care to cover his head, rather more carefully than usual. The smoke will probably produce a sense of stupor which may last for five or six hours, and slightly, even for a day or two afterwards; but if a cure is performed, and we have witnessed one or two, it is an inconvenience easily put up with.

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PAINS IN THE STOMACH FROM GALL-STONES, CURED BY  
VOMITING.

The variety of causes capable of producing pain and spasm in the stomach, render it an indispensable duty on the part of the physician to be vigilant and inquisitive in his investigation. I have already represented gall-stones to be a very frequent cause of spasmodic affection in this organ; and the following symptoms point out their existence:—

A pain in the right side; not constant, but occasional.

An irregular state of the bowels; at one time obstinately constipated, at another relaxed.

Generally a sallow complexion, with a discoloration under the eye-lids; giving to the patient an aspect of melancholy and dejection: there are exceptions to this, for the bilious tinge proceeds from the absorption and retention of bile in the circulation; therefore, when the patient perspires copiously, that matter is thrown off by the skin.

The pain ceasing entirely for several months, and again returning without any apparent cause.

The absence of such symptoms as indicate inflammation or debility.

A great tendency to vomiting, and a suspension of the pain during its operation.

Frequent and sudden fainting fits.

Sometimes an appearance of jaundice all over the body.

An aggravation of the symptoms by using purgative medicines, which produce great sinking and prostration of strength.

Another peculiarity, though not to be regarded as a pathognomonic symptom, is a great tendency to rheumatism; whether from the obstruction occasioned by the free passage of bile into the duodenum, and its consequent regurgitation and absorption into the circulation, or from the debility of the stomach, which is always the effect of gall-stones, to a certain degree.

General languor and dejection of spirits.

An incapability of digesting solid animal food, or only in small quantities.

These symptoms pretty strongly indicate, that the pain is the effect of gall-stones. The event of the case cannot, however, be predicted by this discovery; for their number and magnitude still remain to be ascertained.

The cure consists in applying warm fomentations to the seat of the pain, and if the pulse is affected, to use the warm bath. It is for spasms of this description likewise, that a draught of water, made as hot as it can be swallowed, is found very serviceable. The tincture of digitalis, in small doses, often repeated, does good: a tea-spoonful of tincture of guaiacum affords great relief; but for the immediate mitigation of pain, opium is the best medicine, and must be administered with freedom.

The pain of the stomach proceeding from gall-stones, is distinguishable likewise by certain peculiarities. It is of two kinds: one spasmodic, appearing obviously to proceed from a contraction of the fibres of the stomach; this comes on by paroxysms, and if it commences at first with great violence, the stomach is liable to take on the same morbid action, at the same hour, on the next or some succeeding day, owing to the influence of habit.

This pain is sometimes so violent, that the patient is compelled to fly to opium for relief, and can swallow very large quantities without feeling its narcotic effect: the patient frequently expresses a conviction, that unless this remedy were at hand, the pain would prove fatal, and there is reason to believe this has really happened, and been attributed to gout.

But besides this spasmodic pain, which is occasional, there is

felt a constant burning pain, and such exquisite degree of sensibility in the stomach and region of the liver, that the slightest pressure is intolerable.

It may naturally be expected, that for the relief of this leeches and blisters would be found serviceable, but it is a fact I have ascertained by experience, that blisters do not, in general, afford much relief; neither have the leeches such an effect as might be expected. Supposing it to arise from common inflammation, the best remedy, in addition to what has been already recommended, is antimony given according to the circumstances of the case: if the pain and tenderness, perceptible by pressure, have been coming on gradually for some time, antimony given in small doses, in combination with the sulphate of magnesia, is the best mode of administering it. Under this plan of treatment, it will be generally found that the pain diminishes; and what is more extraordinary, the strength and appetite return.

When the pain has come on rather suddenly, is extremely acute, and spasmodic, and little of the fixed burning pain, then antimony should be given in a full dose, to produce free vomiting.

This assertion is contradictory to the notions some people entertain of good practice; but practice, the best criterion of its truth, bears me out in the opinion. Such a point as this is not to be decided by hypothesis: I recommend, therefore, with perfect confidence, from my own experience, the exhibition of an emetic to relieve the pain produced by the passage of a gall-stone; and to those who are not satisfied with this assurance, I shall beg leave to observe, that vomiting is commonly the method which nature has recourse to; the pain from gall-stones being often terminated by a spontaneous fit of vomiting, as if to upbraid the practitioner for his ignorance and timidity.

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#### THE ADVANTAGES OF SEA-BATHING, WITH RULES FOR ITS PROPER APPLICATION.

Bathing in the sea, is greatly preferable to bathing in fresh water. It excites the action of the solids; stimulates the vessels of the skin; causes an increased determination of the fluids to the surface of the body, and promotes all the secretions. Even persons of the most delicate habits are less susceptible of cold, from being wet with salt, than with fresh water. There is a saline incrustation formed on the skin, in consequence of bathing in the sea, which excites, in some measure, the action of the cutaneous vessels, by the common friction of the apparel,



arising from a certain degree of roughness and asperity thereby imparted to the surface of the body.

Bathing in the sea, by exposing the body for a time to a medium of lower temperature than it has been accustomed to, combined with the opportunity of breathing pure air, of enjoying moderate exercise, and indulging in agreeable society and innocent amusements, restores to the constitution a portion of that strength, which had been previously exhausted by breathing the impure atmosphere, and following the enervating modes of life peculiar to great towns. Indeed, in many cases, after even a short course of judiciously regulated sea-bathing, it is difficult to recognize the languid and meagre invalid, who a few weeks before had repaired to the sea-coast in a state of great debility, when he is seen once more possessing all the advantages of vigorous and florid health.

The rules which have been recommended in the use of sea-bathing are so numerous, often so contradictory to each other, that it is difficult to select or arrange them with propriety; but the following are entitled to the reader's attention:—

#### *Rules for Sea-Bathing.*

Sea-bathing should be continued for at least five or six weeks, at two periods in the year, making June a part of the one, and September of the other. By thus allowing an interval between the two courses of bathing, a more salutary change may be effected in the fluids and solids, than if it had been persisted in for many months without intermission.

Bathing in the heats of Autumn is not reckoned so useful. The lowest temperature of the sea on our coasts, is about forty degrees of Fahrenheit; whereas in Autumn, it is often from sixty to sixty-two degrees, and as the atmosphere is probably about sixty-five; hence it may be called temperate, rather than cold bathing. The lower the temperature we can accustom ourselves to bear with impunity, the better we are enabled to withstand the vicissitudes of the seasons.

Before bathing in the sea, it is a rule proper to be adopted by the young and delicate, gradually to prepare themselves for sea-bathing, by previously using the tepid bath, at a temperature commencing at ninety degrees; lowering five degrees each time, and terminating at sixty-five. This is much better for them than plunging at once into the sea, at its common temperature, without any previous preparation.

We should never begin to bathe in the sea, till two or three days after having arrived on the sea-coast; during which time it would be advisable to take a moderate dose of salts, or a tea-

cupful of sea-water, every morning before breakfast. Sea-bathing, likewise, should not be taken after great fatigue, as coming from a long journey; nor after the body has been long exposed to great exertion, and has incurred lassitude, debility, or chilliness; nor if there is any inward determination of the fluids to the head or the lungs. It is an indispensable rule, never to bathe in the sea with a full stomach, but either fasting, or about four hours after eating. It is hardly necessary to add, that to rush into cold water, if at all unwell, or on the day you have taken medicine, is dangerous in the extreme.

The robust and healthy may bathe early in the morning, or before breakfast; but persons of a delicate or feeble constitution, or who are in the habit of dining late, and indulging in the luxuries of the table, should prefer bathing about two hours before dinner. It is better for such persons to bathe on alternate days, than for many days consecutively. Daily bathing is frequently found productive of lassitude, accompanied by a manifest wasting of the body.

It is now decided as a rule in bathing, that even infirm persons should not use the cold bath, without having previously taken some moderate exercise; and when they bathe, being rather warm than cool. This doctrine cannot be too strongly impressed on their minds. Dr. Currie justly observes, that persons ought not to wait on the edge of a bath, or of the sea, until they are perfectly cool; for if they plunge into the water in that state, a sudden and alarming chilliness may be expected, which would not have been felt, had they been moderately warm when they went into the water.

Attention should be paid to the nature of the bathing-place. A bottom of clear sand is to be preferred. Sea weeds are to be avoided; for they frequently contain a species of pointed shell, which is apt to inflict dangerous wounds, if trodden upon.

It has long been considered a useful rule to have the head first wetted, and indeed many think it necessary to plunge head foremost into the water. It is asserted, that the accumulation of blood in the head, with all its direful consequences, would take place, if this precaution were neglected. This practice, however, has of late been objected to. It is certainly not the mode indicated by nature, as the bather, till the invention of bathing-machines, must in general have walked leisurely into the water, until he reached a depth suited to his purpose. A sudden plunge is a violent and unnatural exertion, which ought not to be insisted upon *with delicate people*; and several of the bad effects which are ascribed to cold bathing, and which have forced many to abandon it, who were anxious to persevere in its



use, may have originated from this very practice. Every person who plunges headlong into the water, will recollect the partial stupor, and unpleasant sensations, which are thus produced, affecting such delicate and sensible organs as the eye and the ear, and when the water enters the mouth and nose, threatening suffocation. Those who feel no bad effects from the practice may persevere in it, but those who experience any inconvenience from it, ought at least to put the matter to the test of experiment.

To have the greatest benefit from cold bathing, it is proper to remain for only a very short time in the water, not exceeding a minute or two. If longer, the body should be kept during the whole time under the surface of the water, and moving about, in order to promote the circulation of the blood, from the centre of the body to the extremities. It is much better to remain completely immersed in deep, than to take repeated plunges in shallow water.

Upon coming out of the water, the body should be wiped dry, with a somewhat rough cloth, and the ordinary dress quickly resumed. It is more necessary to replace the usual vestments quickly, than to be extremely anxious to have the surface of the body perfectly dry, as any wetness from salt water is not likely to be prejudicial.

After bathing, use moderate exercise to promote the return of the heat of the body, taking care that it should neither be violent, nor too long continued.

If chilliness occasionally ensues, breakfast soon after bathing in the morning; or, in the forenoon, some warm soup or broth may be taken. Indeed if immersion, instead of being succeeded by a glow on the surface of the skin, is followed by chilliness, languor, or headache, bathing in the sea should by no means be persisted in.

During a course of sea-bathing, and when even the warm sea-water bath is used, friction with a flesh-brush, or coarse woollen gloves, ought by no means to be omitted. It may enable a patient to continue the course, when otherwise he must have given it up.

Bathing-machines are useful in sea-bathing, as the bather dresses and undresses under a cover, is less exposed to cold, can bathe at any time of the tide, and can go in at any depth that may be wished for. At the same time, they have their inconveniences, when they are without awnings, or soaked with rain, or replete with moist exhalations. Nor are there, in general, a sufficient number of those vehicles in a proper state to accommodate the bathers. These circumstances contribute to



render sea-bathing, in many cases, much less useful than it otherwise would be.

The practice, likewise, of crowding great numbers in so small a box as a bathing-machine, is highly reprehensible. The air must soon be contaminated, and it must occasion languor and faintness.

#### *Bathing-Dresses*

Are certainly of use, more especially to the delicate. They should be made of a very open texture, so as to admit the water in every direction. By using them, the temperature of the body is prevented from being so much reduced, as to render bathing in cold water hazardous. To strong and healthy men, bathing-dresses are not necessary; but if they are sickly or tender, such dresses should certainly be extended to both sexes. At any rate, after undressing as quickly as possible, the body should be immediately wrapt in a large dry flannel gown, which should not be laid aside till the very moment previous to going into the water; by this means the shock of immersion will be avoided, and that salutary glow, which ought always to succeed bathing, may in general be insured.

#### *The Exercise of Swimming*

Is healthy and also agreeable. After using that exercise, we sleep comfortably the whole night, even during the most ardent heat of Summer. Perhaps the pores being cleansed, the insensible perspiration increases, and occasions the coolness we experience. Those, therefore, who have acquired the art of swimming, should never fail to practise it, while they remain in the water; for, besides the uninterrupted immersion of the body, the muscular exertion required in swimming, tends greatly to keep up the balance of temperature, which is lost by placing the body in a medium so much colder than itself.

It should be a constant rule, however, even to the most expert swimmer, never to bathe in the sea, in a lake, or in a river, without having a boat near him, or taking another person with him who knows how to swim. It is certainly a weakening exercise, and many who have remained too long in the water, have been so much enfeebled by it, as to be scarcely able to stand when they came ashore; and if this weakness, or a more fatal cramp, comes on at sea, or even in fresh water, the consequences must be dangerous in the extreme.

The lightest water is at least 830 times heavier than air. The human body, therefore, cannot sustain for any length of time a great pressure of water; hence the most experienced negro-divers dare not venture beyond a certain depth in the sea,

well knowing that it would be impossible for them to rise up against the additional weight of water incumbent upon their bodies.

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### RECIPES FOR SCROFULOUS AFFECTIONS.

#### *Alterative Powder.*

In recent cases of scrofulous swelling, mix together from six to twelve grains of calomel (according to the age of the patient), two drachms of prepared chalk, and four grains of tartar emetic. Divide into twenty-four parts, of which, let the patient take one every morning and evening, in a little sugar or treacle.

#### *Tonic Electuary.*

Mix, with a sufficient quantity of gum water, six drachms of powder of Peruvian bark, and a drachm and a half of carbonate of soda. Let the patient take the bulk of a hazel nut twice or thrice a day.

#### *Tonic Mixture.*

Scrofulous persons will be much benefited by taking two table-spoonfuls of the following-mixture four times a day, viz.

Infusion of Peruvian bark, ten ounces;  
compound-tincture of cardamoms, one ounce;  
carbonate of soda, and  
syrup of orange peel, each half an ounce.

Peruvian bark alone will likewise be of great use, if the bowels have previously been well cleansed. Mineral waters, preparations of iron, and very diluted nitric acid, have also been of great service to scrofulous persons.

#### *Scrofulous Swellings and Enlargements.*

When these swellings commence, they ought to be dispersed as speedily as possible by the application of opodeldoe, soap-plasters, acetated water of ammonia, or sea-water, with either of which, repeated alternate frictions with the hand will be of great service. But when matter is formed in the swelling, it is to be immediately evacuated by the gentle puncture of a lancet; for if the opening be made large, a disfigurement of the part for life will be the consequence.

#### *Ointment for Scrofulous Ulcers.*

Rub two drachms of borax in a mortar, with two ounces of spermaceti ointment or calamine cerate. This will be found to be a most efficacious application to scrofulous ulcers of all kinds.

#### *Tincture of Iodine.*

Dissolve forty-eight grains of iodine, in one ounce of pure spirit of wine. Give to an adult ten drops of this tincture, in

half a glass of capillaire and water, every morning, fasting : give a second dose at ten o'clock, and a third in the evening, or at bed-time. At the end of the first week the dose may be increased to fifteen drops, three times a day, and in a few days afterwards it may be increased to twenty drops. Dr. Coindet, a Swiss physician, states, that in his practice the above quantities were rarely exceeded, as he found them, in general, sufficient.

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#### CHEMIST AND DRUGGIST PRACTITIONERS.

The public ought to know on what ground every person rests, who is in any manner connected with the dispensing of medicine. They ought to know that no person can commence the practice of medicine, unless he has gone through a certain course of practical studies, at some of the public medical schools, and next passed an examination under certain professors of the science, from whom, if his attainments be approved, he receives testimonials of his qualifications, which are assurances to the public that they may trust themselves to his care, and a sufficient guarantee of his knowledge and abilities. Now this, and *this only* is a *medical man*.

Let us turn now to another person, who presents to the eye *something* of the medical character ; this is the chemist and druggist. His art, as a druggist, consists in buying and selling certain articles of merchandize, called drugs ; he learns to distinguish jalap from rhubarb, bole armeniac from bark, &c. ; he is taught the external characters of drugs, by which he distinguishes the good from the bad ; he studies their natural history, discovering the climate and soil whence he is to expect the articles of his trade ; he is enabled to form an estimate of their relative *marketable* value, according as they are produced under favourable or unfavourable circumstances, or as they belong to different species ; and lastly, he learns the prices at which they should be *bought* of the merchant, and *sold* to the consumer.

The education of a modern druggist would be considered very defective, if the above only were his qualifications. He must study the profitable practice of adulteration, and mix cochineal with *coloured dough* ; isinglass with *pieces of bladder* or *fish skin* ; senna with *myrtle leaves* ; with an infinite number of other *ingenious* deceptions.

The *chemist* prepares from the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms, the various compositions and simples used in the arts and in medicine ; he learns to unravel the secrets of nature ; to separate the complicated structure of matter into its elements ; and to combine them again in the utmost variety of form and quality. This is the *practical* chemist ; there are, however, but



few of those who assume the name that are engaged in its duties, or indeed are at all acquainted with the science, particularly of our retail shops, the proprietor of which designates himself "*chemist and druggist.*"

But what *medical* knowledge does the chemist and druggist acquire in this course of education? Is the structure of the human body displayed in a box of rose leaves, or its diseases developed in a bale of opium? Are the laws of vital existence seen in the crystallization of Epsom salts, or the astonishing functions of the animal machine explained by distilling peppermint water? The chemist and druggist has, in the course of his business, a constant intercourse with medical men; and to promote a good understanding between themselves, and assist the views of both parties, they are mutually communicative on those principles of their respective avocations that tend to complete the wishes and interest of each other; and thus the practitioner gets an occasional peep behind the curtain that conceals the secrets of the drug trade, while the other learns that jalap will purge, and ipecacuan will vomit; and if he be placed in a situation where it is likely he may profit by the practice, he increases his stock of knowledge by the perusal of Thomas's Practice of Physic, Reece's Medical Guide, and such books. And is human life entrusted to such unqualified hands?

"On Saturday last (the 14th inst.) an inquest was held on view of the body of John Silbowden, a child about three years old, who died under suspicion of having been poisoned. It appeared that the boy having sickened for the measles, his mother applied to a druggist for a suitable medicine, and he mixed and gave her a powder, which the boy took. On the next morning he became much worse, his mouth and lips were white and blistered, and on the following day, being much alarmed, she again applied to the druggist, who gave her a similar powder, which the child swallowed, and soon after was more violently afflicted about the mouth and throat. In this dreadful state he remained for two days, when medical assistance was called, and every attention given, but the poor sufferer died in three days. On investigation, it appeared that the powders were principally calomel, and were made up, not by weight, but by guess! The evidence of the medical gentlemen proved, that an improper quantity of medicine had been given; and after some strong animadversions by the worthy Coroner on the conduct of the druggist, the Jury returned a verdict—"Died of a disorder, increased and aggravated by an improper quantity of medicine imprudently administered."—*Times Newspaper.*

This is a lamentable case, but we believe that it is very far from being rare in this country.

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